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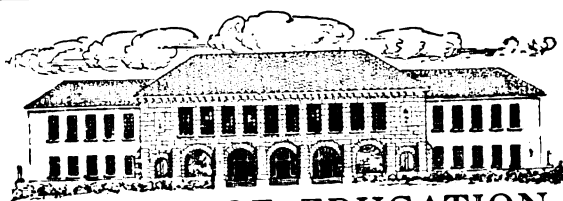
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The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume III.
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, SEPTEMBER, 1911.


\$1.00 a year
15 cents a copy

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The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume III.
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, SEPTEMBER, 1911.

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The Future of the Magazine

BY THE MANAGING EDITOR, ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

Two years ago, in September, 1909, was issued the first number of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE. Founded in the belief that a professional paper was needed by the body of history teachers in America, and in the hope that there was a constituency large enough to support such a paper upon a practical financial basis, the publishers and editors entered upon the work with enthusiasm, and with the good wishes of many friends.

During the two years in which the MAGAZINE has been published, it has, if we may believe the testimony of numerous correspondents, well filled its mission. As the months passed and new fields of usefulness became apparent, the scope of the paper was broadened.

Bibliographical and critical departments were added; detailed articles upon the college teaching of history were introduced, as well as those dealing with history in the secondary and elementary schools. Many papers upon illustrative material were published, together with reprints of source-material and accounts of current events.

Two things the paper has accomplished: First, it has been an inspiration toward higher teaching standards to many teachers; and secondly, it has aided in professionalizing the teaching of history by publishing throughout the country the proceedings of associations and groups of history teachers. The editors and publishers are thankful for the opportunity which they have had to aid, at least in a small degree, in advancing these interests of all history teachers.

With regret it must be said that the paper has not been a financial success; in spite of the use of all possible means to bring it to the attention of history teachers. Many thousands of sample copies have been distributed, circulars were issued by the tens of thousands, agents were appointed at teachers' meetings, and the paper has been given a place of prominence at almost every association meeting held in the last two years. In spite of the labors of the publishers and the assistance of many friends the subscription lists have not reached a figure which would make the paper self-supporting; and a deficit of several thousands of dollars has been incurred. The managing editor has given gratuitously his time and thought to the paper.

Such a condition, however, ought not and can not continue indefinitely. A private concern cannot be expected to furnish at a considerable loss professional material for the teachers' use; and the teachers of the country, on the other hand, when the truth of the matter is made known to them, would be unwilling to accept such a situation.

Last spring, when repeated efforts to enlarge the subscription lists among those who might be interested had failed, it became apparent that the paper could be continued only by adopting one of two plans; either by materially cutting down the quality and quantity of the material printed in the

paper, or by turning it over to some institution or association which could conduct the paper without the expenses incident to its management by a private firm. The first alternative was set aside as impossible. Attention was accordingly devoted to the second alternative, in the hope that some semi-public agency might be found to carry on the enterprise.

Correspondence relating to the subject has been had during the entire spring and summer, but thus far without result. In the course of these negotiations several suggestions were made which it may be proper to lay before the subscribers and friends of the MAGAZINE.

But before giving these suggestions, a word of explanation is necessary. The publishers have not sought and do not now seek any recouping for the considerable sum they have invested in the paper; they are content with the intangible reward of a work done as well as they could do it, and with the many words of praise which have come from friends. The publishers and managing editor are now simply interested in the paper as a thing which ought to be continued, and for the conduct of which there should be some public-spirited agency in this country. The work already done in an editorial capacity and in a business way upon the subscription lists, will be gladly turned over to any agency qualified to continue the publication of the MAGAZINE.

The suggestions made by friends for the continuance of the paper are as follows:

1. The establishment of a guarantee fund composed of contributions from educational institutions and individuals.
2. The publication of the paper by the history department of one or several universities.
3. Its publication by one of the local associations of history teachers.
4. The adoption of the paper as an organ of some historical association or of a national association of history teachers.

Whether one or another of these plans can be adopted remains to be answered by those most interested—the history teachers of the country. While the present editors and publishers will gladly co-operate with any persons looking toward the continuance of publication, they have decided that this September issue will be the last published under the present management. If arrangements cannot be made shortly for its future issue, subscribers to the MAGAZINE will be paid off in full for their unexpired subscriptions, or will be given the option of taking their balances in back numbers of the paper.

In thus bringing to a close the work of two years, the Managing Editor wishes to thank the many friends in all parts of the country, who by literary contributions and by words of appreciation have made the work of these months most enjoyable.

History Material and Its Keeping

BY THOMAS N. HOOVER, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, OHIO UNIVERSITY.

This paper is not to be a bibliography of the history of any country, nor is it to be an extensive discussion of the material the history teacher is to keep. The main purpose is to give some suggestions which may help some teachers of history better to accumulate and to arrange, and therefore better to use history material.

It would be an excellent thing, indeed, if we could take it for granted that all history teachers, even in college, knew good material when they find it, and furthermore, that all teachers of history are able to find good material. This condition, however, does not exist. Many teachers of history in high schools do not know the best books on the subjects they teach, and make no pretense of knowing or using material from the sources. This is due to different causes, one of which is that as students, in college, these teachers were not taught to use and to know material. A principal of a high school, teaching American history, had never heard of the "Federalist." Another teacher of history thought the "Federalist," and the "Madison Papers" were the same.

Another cause is the lack of library facilities where the teacher is teaching. This is one of the history teacher's greatest hindrances. The teacher in the country schools has practically no library from which he can derive any assistance. Often pupils in these schools have an idea that all the history of our country is within the covers of the one small volume used as the text. In the smaller cities there is usually no money left for the purchase of good books on history or government, after the supply of modern fiction has been purchased. Even in connection with college libraries there are persons who have advocated a policy of purchasing many cheap books rather than fewer good books with the same money, on the principle, perhaps, that there is power in the number of volumes. Many times the high school teacher is limited to the text-books because there is nothing else available.

Some college teachers do but little better. There are those who still teach in college with the use of little material other than a text-book; and sometimes a text-book is used in which the author has made "no pretense that the work is based wholly, or even chiefly, on original research."

HISTORY MATERIAL—WHERE TO GET IT.

Surely the history teacher should use vastly more than merely the text-book, and will use material not only from his own library, but also from the college or public library. He will keep in touch with the new books that appear on his subjects. But more than this, the teacher should accumulate a vast amount of material not found in any text-book. There is good material even in places least expected, and the teacher has many opportunities to collect this material. By keeping on the lookout himself, he will find in local papers, and in local governmental bodies, much material he can use. The writer of this article has collected some valuable material on Underground Railroads by getting in touch with a man who operated one of the stations and who since has written a series of articles for his local newspaper, giving a number of his experiences in connection with that business. It is not the purpose to discuss the value of such material, but surely it is of enough value to preserve.

Another means the teacher has of getting material is from the work of his students. There are in most neighborhoods subjects for investigation that will not only appeal to the student, but will result, after proper investigation, in valuable additions to the teacher's material. In making such investigations, the student should be directed by the instructor, and guided in his use of material, when he makes his inves-

tigations. Some teachers whom I know do not even have a conference with the student on his subject, nor does he know what subject is being handled. They turn their students loose, to select a subject, and to find whatever they can on the subject. The value of such work would not be equal to that done under proper direction. Some very creditable work has been done by students, on subjects upon which they were well able to get material. A student from Columbus, Ohio, did an excellent piece of work on the Columbus Filtration Plant and Water System. One from Cleveland has made a careful study of the parks and playgrounds of that city. One from Cincinnati has handled the political conditions of that city, prefacing his report with a large picture of George B. Cox. The resourceful teacher, with an interested student, can by such methods collect much material with real value.

Another sort of material is to be found in the government publications. There is more than one college professor who does not know the vast amount of history material to be found in the public documents of Congress. A professor who teaches international law had available such valuable material as John Bassett Moore's "International Arbitrations," his "Digest of International Law," and such other important material on the subject as is found in the documents of Congress, but not only were they never used, but were never even given favorable mention. One instructor in a college admitted that he did not know how to use the public document well enough to find a reference to them when given in some book. This seems sufficient to show that there is a need on the part of many teachers, both in college and in high school, to know more about the bibliography of history. A high school teacher until recently had never heard of "The American Nation, a History," that excellent work (27 volumes) edited by Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, and written by such men as the late Professors Bourne and Garrison, and Professors Hart, Channing, Cheney, McLaughlin, Greene, Turner, Dunning, MacDonald, Dewey, Sparks, Latané, and others. A college library in Ohio was without this work until about a year ago.

There is also need of collecting more material, other than that found in the secondary works. It is very evidently impossible for a teacher to arrange his material who has no material to arrange. While this article was being written, a student called for Taft's inaugural address, and the platform of the Republicans of New York for this year. Both had been preserved and had been filed in such a way that they were at once available. This leads to the second, and the main part of this paper, viz., what the teacher is to do with the material when he gets it.

HOW TO COLLECT MATERIAL.

The teacher must be the judge of the material he will preserve. Surely, he will not attempt to keep entire files of newspapers. He will instead select from a good paper such material as is desirable. This should be carefully clipped, and pasted on paper, according to some uniform plan. A good sized paper is a sheet eight inches by eleven. These sheets should be special ruled, with a margin at the top of a little more than an inch, a wider margin to the left, and a narrower one to the right of the page. Whatever size is used, should be continued. It is very necessary that the name and date of the paper or magazine from which the clipping is taken be written on some part of the paper to which the clipping is pasted. The place at which this is written should be uniform. It is perhaps better to place these at the bottom of the paper, and at the top place a brief

heading, which will readily suggest the nature of the article. On the wider margin to the left may be written an analysis, or an opinion on the article. The same treatment should be given to material from other sources, whether from books, pamphlets, public documents, or any other source from which the material is taken. It is not a disadvantage to take books, dissect them, and preserve in this way what is wanted from them.

The next point in the plan is the chromatic scheme of papers for different sorts of material. This, when once adopted, should be uniformly kept. All material of one kind should be pasted on paper of one certain color, so that at any time, the teacher will be able in this way to distinguish one sort of material from another. To illustrate, bibliography might be pasted on a green paper, newspaper clippings on red, etc. In no case, however, should more than one reference be pasted on the same page. Leave the remaining space for comments.

If a more complete bibliography is needed on some particular subject than would ordinarily be used, the same chromatic scheme should be carried out, placing references to secondary books on cards of one color, references to source material on another, and references to magazine articles, etc., on cards of still another color. On the cards at the top should be placed the author's surname, followed by the given name in full; following this would come the title of the book—the exact title from the title page, and not from the back of the book—with the exact references to the page or chapter.

A book, however, should be so arranged by the author that it will not be difficult to give a reference to it. No book should have more than one chapter one in it. Some are so divided into books and parts, with each part beginning with a new series of chapters, that it is almost as convenient to begin at the beginning and read through, as to find a reference to it.

After the reference should come the place and date of publication. A space will still be left on any ordinary sized card for opinions or comments. It is furthermore very convenient to indicate on the card where the reference or book may be found. For example, if one should want "The Diplomatic Relations of the United States and Spanish America," by John Holladay Latané, and had it in his bibliography on such a subject as "The Monroe Doctrine," if on the card were placed H. C. L. 6386.30, he would know at once where the book could be found in the Harvard College Library. Keep bibliographies in alphabetical order.

ARRANGEMENT OF MATERIAL.

When the material is selected, is cut and pasted on the papers of different colors, it is then ready to be collected, and assorted, and put into proper place in the library. The material on the same subject should be put together and furthermore should be arranged with the bibliography in the front, followed by the material in chronological order. When the material on any subject is thus arranged, it should be put loose in a manila cover, a little larger than the paper on which the material is pasted, and folded in such a way that it will stand like a book. On the back of the cover the subject of the material should be clearly marked, the dates covered, and the number of the folder, so that material for any time on the subject may be obtained, and replaced when used. For example, if the subject is slavery, and there are several folders with material on the subject, Slavery, 1830-1840, R-I, placed on the back of the folder, would locate the material. Books on particular subjects should be marked in the same way, and should have their place along with the folders.

The great advantage of having the manila covers and the material on loose leaves is in the addition of new material, as it will from time to time be collected. It will be placed

in with the other material, without any disarrangement, and can be put just where it belongs. This, of course, cannot be done if the material is in bound volumes.

LECTURE NOTES.

The teacher should have quite a collection of his own lecture notes,—those taken when he was in college, as well as those arranged by him for his lectures, after he is out of college, and is teaching. Again, the loose leaves should be used, the notes being taken on paper with the special ruling already described. These notes should be so marked with marginal references that the teacher can quickly tell what they are. By keeping them on the loose leaves in folders, they will readily fit into the general scheme of keeping material.

In the arrangement of books treating in a general way of a long period, or of books in a set, it is advantageous to have a certain part of the library for such books, and there arrange them in alphabetical order, keeping the sets together. There should be care taken in arranging the library for the material. There should be separate compartments for the material of each subject or course the teacher gives. American history should have its place, separate from any other history. Government should have its place, and so for all other courses.

The real history teacher no longer sits at a table and keeps his eye on the page of a text-book as a student repeats the words of that page. The teacher has but little use for a text-book. There may be some good in hearing a student repeat what he has read from a text; but if that is all a teacher is to do, one person can teach history as well as another. If the teacher does not direct, stimulate, implant the spirit of research and investigation, and cause the student to want to find out the truth for himself, he fails to do his whole duty. The teacher will be greatly aided in accomplishing these ends by first knowing good material, and then by knowing how to arrange that material in such a way that it will be serviceable. Furthermore, the teacher will do a great service to the student, if he will start him on the way to know what good history material is, and then how this may best be arranged and made serviceable.

Ex-Mayor George B. McClellan, in his address of welcome to the various associations at Carnegie Hall, December, 1909, gave some wholesome advice when he urged that no more books be inflicted upon the world unless they have a real message. Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, in that masterpiece, "Imagination in History," the inaugural address before the American Historical Association a year ago, filled many history teachers with a new desire and determination, to know more about history material and to distinguish the real and genuine from the unreal and false. He pointed out the danger in the kind of imagination in history that "invents details or seizes upon the unimportant ones, or combines them into pictures which are but the outside; which tell us nothing of the stir and movement of human souls, the clash of human wills, of the thinking of national thoughts."

President Lowell, in his inaugural address before the Political Science Association, made a plea for more careful study of politics and government, not only from the debates of legislative bodies, statutes enacted, and the like, but also from the outside world, from the actual working of the political machinery.

It is the purpose of this paper to follow after these thoughts. Before the teacher does anything else, let him be filled with the spirit of the two great addresses just mentioned. Let him have the spirit of investigation, the real imagination, that which is from within outward, and which will make history and government subjects which are alive. Then the teacher will know material, and will by a systematic arrangement of his material, increase his own knowledge and usefulness.

The Introductory History Course

At the University of Missouri

BY PROFESSOR NORMAN M. TRENHOLME.

INTRODUCTORY: SCOPE AND CHARACTER OF THE COURSE.

The field that we attempt to cover in this course is that of the middle ages and modern age in connection with the activities and development of the peoples of Western Europe. It is therefore to some extent a general survey of medieval and modern history. As a basis for organized study and interpretation, students are required to own Robinson's "History of Western Europe" and "Readings in European History" (abridged ed.), while as a definite topical guide with references and review questions they have a "Syllabus for the History of Western Europe," compiled by the author of this article. Some students purchase reference works in addition, but most of the class rely on the reference library provided by the university, in which there are numerous duplicates of the books most referred to in the syllabus. As this course is recommended to all freshmen and sophomores as preliminary to other work in history, and to the courses offered in the departments of Economics, Political Science, Sociology, History of Art, Education and Philosophy, it is elected by a large number of undergraduates and presents some difficult and interesting problems of organization and methods of instruction.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE.

For the last six years the course has been organized on a section basis, by which means the students are instructed in class groups of about thirty-five, instead of in one large class of over three hundred. Each section has a separate instructor, who is responsible for the work of the class under him, and makes his own assignments. The sections used to meet three times a week through the year, but the course has now been placed on a one semester five hour a week basis. Six sections are organized in the first semester and three in the second semester. On the basis of thirty-five students to a section, this provides for about three hundred in the course during the year. Six instructors do the work, three of whom, however, only teach this course one semester and give five hour a week courses in Ancient, English and American history during the second semester.

There are two features of our section plan that deserve especial mention. One of these is the provision for women's and men's sections, instead of mixed sections, and the other is the providing of a special section for intending teachers. The arranging of students according to sex was begun in the fall of 1904, and, in the opinion of all who have had to do with the course, has been a valuable change. The freshmen boys and girls, who chiefly elect the course, are new to college work and are inclined to be shy and reticent in discussion, especially in the presence of the other sex. Segregation has overcome this difficulty very largely, and has resulted in much more rapid adaptation to new conditions and a higher standard of work than would have been the case in mixed classes. In addition, there are certain advantages from the psychological viewpoint in teaching history to women alone or to men alone. Although segregation has not been carried further than the introductory course, the writer is of the opinion that it could be beneficially introduced in connection with large undergraduate classes in other fields of history than the Euro-

pean, and would result in better and more intensive work on the part of both men and women. The feminine and the masculine viewpoints in history are different, and different methods of teaching should be adopted.

The plan of having a special section for intending teachers has also been justified by good results. In this section it has been possible to lay emphasis on methods of presenting the subject-matter and on reference work and collateral reading, and, in general, develop a more pedagogical attitude toward the work than in the purely academic sections, where cultural and disciplinary aims prevail. Furthermore, the fact that the section is made up of intending school of education students gives it a certain professional spirit of earnestness, and throws together the older and more experienced students. This allows a higher grade of work to be done in the teachers' section.

While there are some obvious disadvantages in having a history class meet five times a week instead of twice or thrice, yet, on the whole, we think the change a good one. There is a maintenance of continuity of thought in connection with daily discussions and the fact that a student carrying three five-hour courses is less burdened with a variety of intellectual interests than one carrying five three-hour courses is conducive to greater interest and intensiveness. It is also some economy from the teaching side, as an instructor who teaches two five-hour courses each semester is less burdened than one teaching several three-hour or two-hour courses. It would seem that, for the ordinary courses of the freshman and sophomore years, a one semester five-hour plan might be advantageously adopted.

METHODS AND AIMS OF INSTRUCTION.

The method of instruction employed in our introductory course is a combination of the recitation and the lecture. It has been developed on the assumption that students who have but just graduated from the high schools where a recitation method is used are not prepared for formal lecture courses of the university type and yet should take a step forward from the somewhat stiffly organized and mechanical high-school recitation and benefit by the scholarship of their university teacher. We call our method of instruction, therefore, a discussion method, because it consists of an informal discussion of the topic by the instructor and the class. The former is supposed to contribute to the topic from his own reading and study, and the latter are tested as to their knowledge of the essential facts and their understanding of their meaning and significance. The element of continuity is provided for by a brief review discussion of the preceding topic of the background of the new topic. At times a source account or a group of related source extracts will be taken as the basis of the discussion, and the relation of the sources to history will be strikingly brought out. The informality of the classroom work and the comparatively small number of students in each section have resulted in developing a genuine interest in the work on the part of both instructors and students, and the meeting of a section of History I is usually an occasion for eager questioning and lively discussion.

rather than of listlessness and indifference. This has been accomplished by developing natural interests and leading the student to think rather than compelling him to remember, and by developing a rational need of information in order to explain problems of development, rather than by arbitrary methods of imparting information. There is really no need for history to be a meaningless memory study and drill in factual details, when it has so much of vital meaning in regard to past and present conditions.

In order that a rational perspective may be given in the course, the first few meetings of each section are devoted to discussing the viewpoint in history, the reasons for studying history, and other questions connected with history as a worthy field of study. There is also some discussion of sources and secondary works, and of the perspective of medieval and modern development. In order that the relation of the past to the present may be properly emphasized, it has been thought worth while to spend some little time in discussing present-day conditions before taking up the past, and, accordingly, we have begun the history study in the course by a brief survey of existing political, social, religious and economic conditions. Emphasis is laid especially on the prevalence of national states, in contrast to the imperial ideals of ancient and medieval times, on religious toleration and the variety of religious organization, as opposed to uniformity, and the state church of the past, on popular representative government or democracy, as opposed to royal absolutism or aristocracy, and on the prevalence of the economic factors today over all personal or sentimental considerations. We have found our students woefully ignorant of present-day government and politics, and this little introductory survey has resulted in giving them some definite knowledge of present-day conditions, so that the meaning and significance of imperialism, nationalism, feudalism, the rise of the third estate and of economic, social and religious changes have become clearer when connected with their remote results in the present. At the same time, we do not neglect to emphasize the great classical background as summed up in Roman imperialism, and considerable time is spent in discussing the transition from Roman to Germanic-Roman Europe, and in discovering in what ways Rome continued to influence western Europe. Throughout the entire course the aim of the instruction is to get below the surface facts and develop an understanding and appreciation by the students of the historical development of Europe in its various parts and as a whole, and to especial-

ly emphasize those factors of growth and change that lead up to present conditions. The discussions in the class room are not upon questions of fact so much as upon questions of relative influence and importance. Accuracy of information is made the basis for correct generalization, and no student is allowed to make a hypothetical statement unchallenged. This results in sound scholarship and sound understanding—two essential things in the proper study of history.

Some map work is done in close connection with the class-room topics. Thus, when discussing feudal France, the students prepare a map showing the great feudal divisions of medieval France as a part of the lesson. Wall maps are constantly used, and are kept before the class, so that in time they become familiar. An occasional written exercise is given in place of the oral discussion—a sort of hour examination—and in the middle, and at the close of each semester, a more formal review examination is given as a test of the students more permanent knowledge and of the power of thoughtful organized presentation of the subject matter. Grades are assigned on the basis of the oral and written work and attendance. More stress is laid on class-room discussion, however, than on written examinations. As regard reference and collateral reading, all possible facilities are provided, and the students are encouraged to follow up their topics in the chief secondary works. The results of this reading are brought out in the class-room discussions, and credit given for its performance when good results are evidenced. There is, however, no attempt made to compel students to do library work. They are held responsible for a good knowledge of history, and they must use their own methods of outside work in acquiring that knowledge. Required note books, reading notes, bibliographies and so forth are not a part of our course. The loading up of an introductory history course with too many mechanical requirements robs it of interest and vitality, and makes it too much a series of required exercises, which are looked on as drudgery by students.

RESULTS IN CONNECTION WITH THE INTRODUCTORY COURSE.

We have come to regard our introductory course as the most interesting and really satisfactory course that we are able to give. It seems to meet the needs of our freshmen and sophomores much better than a large lecture course would, and they seem to find the work in it really interesting and profitable. The instructors take pleasure in their work, and are proud of their classes, and this is a pretty fair test of the success of any course.

History and Government in the Secondary School

The Making of an Historical Museum

BY ALBERT H. SANFORD, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, LA CROSSE, WIS.

The writer's experience in collecting historical relics may be of interest to history teachers who are making every effort to move toward the vital and away from the formal in their work. No argument need be made for the value of relics in rendering history lessons more vivid and interesting. They enable the pupil to come into first-hand contact with the past; as, for instance, when he sees in the museum in question an old Dutch brick from the

Sleepy Hollow Church; a steel used for striking fire before the invention of matches; some land patents of 1855, bearing the signature of President Pierce; an old revolver, of which the barrels revolve, instead of the cylinder; some election ballots for the years 1864, 1866, and 1868, the two latter printed upon wall paper.

The gathering of these and many other articles of interest was a gradual process, but it involved comparatively little search

or labor. Very few of the relics were solicited, and none was purchased; but whenever a donation or a loan was made, a careful record was kept, and an item was inserted in each of the local papers; and in the school paper, acknowledging the favor and expressing thanks to the individual from whom it came. Sometimes a general statement was added intended to encourage other similar favors. The number of instances in which the publication of such

an item was followed immediately by the offer of another gift or loan was remarkable. Our experience furnishes clear evidence that historical relics of value are not rare in communities like this; that sometimes they are a burden to the housekeeper; and that it is frequently a source of genuine pride for the owner to contribute such articles to a public institution. If any persuasion is needed to bring the relic to the museum, arguments showing the greater safety from destruction, from careless handling, and from fire, that the school building and the museum cases furnish, are sufficient.

The first contributions to this museum came, most appropriately, from the stone age. The stone and copper implements of the Indians, the fragments of pottery, and the pipes, that are so common in this State, were donated in large numbers. Here, too, are some woven mats that were found in cliff caves above the Columbia River.

The most interesting Civil War relic that has been acquired is a Confederate \$1,000 bond, picked up by a Union soldier in the capitol at Richmond on the day after its evacuation. When the war was over, our veteran became provost marshal in Virginia, and preserved original blank forms of the "parole" and "amnesty oath" then much in use. Some of the former bear the signatures of Confederate soldiers. There is also a copy of the celebrated wall paper edition of the Vicksburg "Daily Citizen" of July 2, 1863. Some paper cartridges of Civil War times, in proximity to specimens of the earliest (Lee) metal cartridges, and others of Spanish War times, show an interesting line of evolution. "Canister" and "grape shot" are vague terms to most students; the sight of these projectiles makes the horrors of war more impressive.

Accompanying these are cannon fuses and "eight-second" fuses for shells.

Perhaps nothing in the museum makes the Civil War more vivid than the copy of the Chicago "Tribune" for April 14, 1862, containing news of the battle at Pittsburg Landing. Most impressive are the columns containing the names of the dead, wounded and missing. Some raw Wisconsin regiments were at the front that day. Can the pupil imagine himself searching those columns when the paper arrived fresh from the press? Numerous other papers, both Northern and Southern, were preserved because of the important news they contain—the surrender of Vicksburg, the nomination of McClellan in 1864, and the death of Stonewall Jackson.

A few relics have come from Revolutionary sources. Such are a wooden barrel-shaped canteen, like those seen in pictures of Revolutionary battles; an epaulette worn by an officer in that war; a leather pocket-book stamped with the date 1782. The most valuable reminders of those times, however, are a sample of North Carolina currency issued in 1776, and a Continental note of 1775; the latter was a loan which has recently been removed by its owner, who was a graduate from the school.

The value of the Continental paper money is shown in copies of the "New Jersey Almanack" of the dates 1778, 1779, 1780 and 1785. These contain tables of depreciation fixed by several State governments. One table shows how the money declined in value daily from January, 1777, when it was quoted at par, to May, 1781, when \$100 in paper was worth sixty-nineths of a dollar. These almanacs, and others of the dates 1804, 1806 and 1807, contain interesting reflections of the life

and ideas of those times. Among other miscellaneous items of information is the following: "Remedy for Consumption; published by a Gentleman from experience: One ounce of the juice of Horehound, in a pint of milk, sweetened with honey; to be taken every day for a considerable time."

European history is represented by a few interesting relics. There is a diploma granted by a German university to a graduate in forestry and dated 1807—precisely one hundred years before the State of Wisconsin became interested in that subject. Most valuable are two letters written by a soldier in the Prussian army during the Napoleonic wars. One is dated July 31, 1815, a short time after the battle of Waterloo. The soldier's description of his experiences in that battle is brief, but vivid.

In anticipation of future interest in certain public characters of to-day, autographs have been preserved written by William J. Bryan, Captain Hobson, Senator Tillman, Mrs. Booth, Archbishop Ireland, and others. An autograph letter from John Hay was also given to the museum. A small collection of old text-books has been accumulated, and a geographical museum has grown to some proportions at the same time. The writer is convinced that it is possible to have a similar historical collection in every school. When once established, it constitutes a bond of union between the school and the community. Moreover, the school is the natural repository for such tangible articles as are evidences of the lives and experiences of past generations. Careless hands are constantly destroying these mementoes, and we cannot too soon begin to preserve them for the instruction of our own and for the benefit of future generations.

Pictures: Their Use and Abuse in History Teaching

BY EDGAR W. AMES, HEAD OF DEPT. OF HISTORY, TROY HIGH SCHOOL, TROY, N. Y.

It has been said that "a room hung with pictures is a room hung with thoughts," and we might paraphrase this and say a text-book filled with pictures is a book filled with thoughts, but unfortunately this is not always true. If it were true, the "dry bones" of history would be "clothed upon with the flesh of life," and the girl who said she was glad she did not live two hundred years from now because she would have so much more history to learn, would not have felt impelled to voice her troubles so frankly.

A picture should be used in the teaching of history not "only to point a moral and adorn a tale," but to make the events described seem real to the student; to give him a clear idea of the appearance of the personages who move across the historical horizon,—a rather dim one sometimes,—to illustrate the life, manners and customs of

the people; and to make known their art, literature and science. We may find some of these pictures in the text-books, some in magazine articles, or in any of the varied places they may be obtained. There is an immense number of them, and it would seem as if with this wealth of material that something must be fundamentally wrong when the cry is so generally made that history is dry and uninteresting. It is the exception rather than the rule that a High School student studies history because he is fond of it. He studies it because he thinks it may be easy or because he is forced to take it, either by some college entrance requirement or because his particular course calls for it, this being especially true of his senior year.

If the student is not interested, the fault must lie in one of three places, in the student himself, in the teacher, or in the text-

book, or it may lie in a combination of the three. Not long since the following questions were given to sixty-five students who were studying one of the best text-books in American History.

1. Do you make use of the pictures in your text-books while studying your lesson as a help in understanding it? If not, why?

2. Do you consider the illustrations in your text-books interesting?

3. What sort of illustrations do you like best for a history text-book?

The result was startling. Thirty did not use the pictures at all; twenty-one used them *sometimes*, and the remaining fourteen said they used them, qualifying their statement, however, by saying they did not consider the pictures in their text-books interesting. It of course followed that the majority of the fifty-one found the pic-

tures uninteresting. The answers to the third question were varied. Among the kinds mentioned were battle scenes and pictures of action in general, cartoons and pictures to show the customs of the times, but no one mentioned portraits of famous men.

Although this questionnaire is of value in our discussion as giving us the student's viewpoint, yet we must remember that the average High School student has no sense of value in a picture. He sees a chromo of "The Spirit of 76," given as a prize for a pound of tea, and calls it beautiful. He sees a copy of Rembrandt's "Sortie of the Civic Guard" and finds no beauty in it. Frans Hals' "A Jolly Man" may appeal to him because no one can see the picture and not feel that he is face to face with life, uncontrolled life perhaps, yet one must believe that the man lived at some day in the past and that life meant to him a jolly, care-free existence; but as a picture to be studied as a type of life of the early 17th century, it would have no meaning to the average High School student. Is the student to blame for this lack of knowledge? Most certainly he is not. The fault lies beyond him. He can learn only what he is taught, and students are not taught to appreciate the value of good pictures.

Let us look beyond the pupil to the teacher. Do the teachers of history try to teach their students by a careful use of illustrative material? Each teacher who is asked such a question would of course say "Yes, indeed, I take pictures to class every day to show my students. They bring to class all the illustrative material they can find." That is probably true. But is it better to have a great many ordinary pictures cut from magazines, displayed before the class, or is it better when the Napoleonic Wars are studied, to take one good picture, such as Gerome's "Napoleon and the Sphinx," and look carefully into its meaning? The answer is not far to seek. In the press and hurry of the day's work the ordinary history teacher feels that she has no time to study art; and yet it is the most prolific source of help to make history real, not only European and Ancient history, but also American history. The teacher would find much help if she would use the illustrative material in the text-book, but it is a safe statement to make that to ninety per cent. of the teachers of history, the illustrations in the text-books are as if they were not. We are so anxious to teach the students the facts in the book, that we pass entirely over the illustrations that are put there to help us. However, this may not be the wrong thing to do with some pictures, and so in our search for this weakness in our history teaching we are brought to a consideration of the third point.

Is it rank heresy to question the illustrations in the good text-books? Can it be that these excellent texts are lacking in

this respect? They have many illustrations. All the prominent historical characters appear there. We see Columbus, Washington, Lincoln, all in their proper places. There are battle scenes, inventions, colonial houses, the manners and customs of the people; and in spite of it all, as we have shown above, students pass over the pictures with little or no attention.

A suitable illustration for a text-book in history should have three qualities. It must be of interest to the average student; it either must attract his attention at once, or be of such character that, with the help of the teacher, the student may recognize the picture as an interesting part of his work. In the next place, the illustration must be an aid to the text. As it is placed in most of the texts to-day, it is not an aid to the student in attempting to grasp the work. Cathedrals, town walls and medieval towns may have inherent beauties but what teacher can arouse interest in European history by reference to the average picture of these features as found in the text-books?

In the third place, the illustration must be historically accurate. Many texts show the picture of Columbus. If he resembled all the pictures published of him, he must have been exceptionally accomplished in "changing his face." If one of those pictures is accurate, the others cannot be, and to say the least, certainly must be confusing to the student. This applies to many of the so-called portraits found in the text-books. They may look well on the page, but as helps to the student, and that is what the illustrations are supposed to be, they are of no value whatever. An example of another class of these valueless pictures is Leutze's "Washington Crossing the Delaware," which is seen so often in our text-books. Caffin in his "Guide to Pictures" says of it, "History tells us that the crossing began early in the evening of December 25, 1776, and lasted until four a.m. the following morning. Does this picture represent the dimness of a winter twilight, much less the gloom of night? Leutze probably had no thought of representing this aspect of the truth or the effect that light would have upon the appearance of the figures. A similar artificiality appears in the representation of the ice, for the lights, shadows and gleams are a very different thing from the painted blocks representing the effect of real ice as seen in real light.

"What of the point on which he relied—the grouping of the figures in the foreground? It is a ticklish job to pull a boat through a mass of floating ice cakes. Do you think Washington and the flag bearer would have increased the peril and difficulty by standing up? They and every man not actually engaged in navigating the boat would have been sitting low down, so as to help preserve the balance and offer as little resistance as possible to the wind. Leutze failed to realize that in a picture a deeper

sentiment may be aroused by a simple truth of representation than by a display of mock heroics." Caffin might have added to this arraignment of the historical accuracy of the picture that at the time Washington crossed the Delaware there was no flag with its stars and stripes for anyone to carry.

Since these are the facts, is there no remedy? It does not follow that because some illustrations are bad, because some are unfitted for study, that all are so. There is a text for a whole lesson in Stuart's portrait of "Washington," in the "Puritan," and "Lincoln," of St. Gaudens. The "First Prayer in Congress," by T. H. Matteson, breathes the feeling of need for help experienced by the leaders of the Revolution. The colored illustrations in Mace's School History cannot fail to arouse the interest of the boys and girls who study them. Do you doubt that "The Waiting at Concord Bridge," by N. C. Wyeth, or the "Escape of Arnold," by Howard Pyle, would arouse interest? In the former there stands facing you a little group of men, waiting. They are evidently farmers, armed with their old muskets, pitchforks, or whatever they could catch up in their haste, ready to meet they knew not what. It is a disorderly assemblage, disorganized, yet you feel that they realize the coming crisis. One is fixing his gun, another pulling his hat down tightly, and in the center of the crowd is that person ever present in such a body—the one who stands with wide-open mouth to see what is going to happen, with no realization of its seriousness. Far in the background you see hurrying across the fields and down the road other dim figures, all hastening up to drive back the oncoming British. But far above the commonplace figures, or the ordinary scenery is the expression on the faces of those who wait. They seem to know that the "shot heard 'round the world" is to be fired; yet they are not afraid.

In the "Escape of Arnold," Pyle tells the whole story. The bowed head of Arnold as he comes over the side of the "Vulture," the sneering looks of the officers who receive him, tell of the life-long agony of self-contempt and the hatred of the world, better than any words can do. I have never known a class to look at either of these pictures without that hush of feeling and understanding that we so desire and so seldom have, that tells us an historical truth has been understood.

Much good material will be brought into class by the students, but let the teacher accept only that which is good. If the students bring the penny pictures, so easily obtainable nowadays, train them to pick out the ones that have a meaning and then teach them to understand fully the meaning. If the pictures are put in the note-books, do not accept the work unless a proper description accompanies each picture. It is true that sometimes it is not

possible for some students to collect many pictures for the note-book. They have not the sources in which to find what the others have found, and yet even they may be taught to seek for the best.

Let the teacher use whatever is of value in the text-book. Even though it points out no way, and though the pictures are confused, and only put in to look well, the live teacher can make use of the best in the book while supplementing what may be necessary. Use the pictures with thought in them,—pictures with figures, that, like Rembrandt's "Syndics of the Cloth Guild," "occupied without acting, they speak without moving their lips." If the teacher knows the good pictures of the period being studied, then the work will be simplified, but the teacher may not expect of the pupil that which she herself does not know.

Let the walls of the recitation room be

hung with good copies of famous historical paintings. Students from all kinds of homes come to this room, and even for the short time of the recitation period association with that which is best in historical pictures cannot fail to have its impress. If it is possible to do so, it will be found of help for each class to leave behind it a copy of some good historical painting, for then it will feel that it has had some small share in helping future classes to know what is good and beautiful and that they may be helped in their work. If it is not possible for the class to purchase a picture, they can certainly leave behind them some of the good illustrations they have found, and a portfolio for the use of future classes may be formed. If a frame with a movable back is made, it will be possible to have one of these pictures before the class each day, and the interest of all will be found to have increased many fold.

In conclusion then, we find that the fault lies in the teacher and the text-book, and not in the student; and that the remedy is a close correlation of the pictures concerning the period with the history of that period. The average teacher understands that the carved forms of the "Wrestlers," or the graceful figure of the "Winged Victory of Samothrace," typify clearly and distinctly certain phases of Greek history, but she should understand just as clearly that Remington's "Broncho-Buster" typifies a phase of American history, and as the "Surrender at Breda" illustrates fully a certain period of European history, so "Cromwell at Whitehall" teaches the lesson of England's Civil War. When we have such pictures in our text-books, and best of all when our history teachers know the best pictures concerning the period studied, then it will be found that the student will take pleasure in his history lesson.

The Life of the Middle Ages

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Its Importance.

Professor Emerton once said, "The historical teacher finds himself slowly coming to the conclusion that 'medieval' means rather a set of ideas and forms of society than a period of time. He becomes interested, not so much in fixing definite chronological limits to the medieval period, as in determining with clearness just what are medieval ideas and forms, no matter where he finds them." One of the most important considerations for the teacher then, is the presentation of enough of the life and thought of the middle ages to enable the student to form a clear conception of the meaning of the term medieval. It is undoubtedly this institutional or cultural phase of the subject which calls for the greatest emphasis. One of our foremost scholars voices this idea in no uncertain fashion in the preface to his text-book on the Middle Ages, "In this text-book three subjects have been emphasized: first, the work of the Christian Church, the greatest of the civilizing agencies; second, the debt which we owe to the Byzantine and Arabic civilizations; third, the life of the times." These words should represent the attitude of every secondary teacher toward the subject.

It is easy for the instructor to neglect this aspect of the middle ages for the sake of building an elaborate framework of political history. In too many cases, however, the structure speedily collapses like the proverbial house of cards. The very attractiveness of this cultural phase of the subject, and the readiness with which the student seizes upon its details often encourage the teacher to take too much for granted. The ease with which the student grasps these facts prompts him to conserve his energies for the presentation of some difficult point of political or ecclesiastical history.

This shifting of responsibility to the already overworked text-book may also be due to a feeling—of unfamiliarity with medieval life. It certainly requires more or less of an effort on the part of the teacher to project himself into the life and thought of a period so alien in its conceptions to our present day conditions of living. It is the most natural thing for the instructor to follow the line of least resistance and, instead of leading the class, to allow himself to be led by them. This is likely to be the case if the presentation of medieval life is one of the strong features of the text-book in use. The teacher is thereby missing a golden opportunity of deepening an impression already produced and of creating a life-long enthusiasm for his subject. It behooves him then, to plan just as carefully for these lessons on the culture of medieval Europe as for those which deal with more abstruse and less interesting topics. This material should be carefully analyzed and ample time should be allowed for its discussion. An excellent opportunity is presented for the use of illustrative material and for the encouragement of outside reading.

Relation to Political History.

It does not matter so much at what point these topics are introduced as that they should be presented in connection with those movements of which they are an integral part. The crusades naturally suggest the trading activities of the times, the consequent growth of towns, and the characteristics of town life. In a similar fashion the instructor naturally passes from a consideration of the legal aspects of feudalism to the life of those individuals who stand at the antipodes of the system, the peasant and the noble. Although the class may devote a considerable portion of its time to

these aspects of the middle ages as the various movements pass before them, there usually comes a time—probably just before the discussion of the Renaissance—when the instructor feels the need of bringing together and unifying this scattered material. A review of this character assists the student materially in grasping the significance of the changes which marked the new epoch. There is also a decided advantage in passing finally, before the class, once and for all, in kaleidoscopic fashion the characters who really made medieval Europe what it was.

A Method of Presentation.

The writer has tried the following method of accomplishing this result with some success. Each member of the class was assigned some character peculiar to the age, e. g., a priest, monk, noble, peasant, craftsman, or student, and was instructed to inform himself thoroughly as to the life of that individual. For the time being at least he was to imagine himself a craftsman or student, and was to give the class a sketch of his career, striving to include within his narrative as many interesting and pertinent facts as he could derive either from books or pictures. He was given the option of presenting this material orally or in writing, but in either case it must be given in the first person. Finally he was cautioned against confusing conditions which prevailed in different centuries in view of the great changes which came with the lapse of time. Ample time was allowed each individual for collecting and arranging his material.

References.

The following books were suggested: Cutts, "Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages;" Jessopp, "Coming of the Friars"

(especially chapter 2 on Village Life, chapter 3 on Daily Life in a Mediæval Monastery, and chapter 6 on Building up of a University); Emerton, "Mediæval Europe" (chapter 13, on Intellectual life, chapter 15, on Organization of the Middle and Lower Classes, and chapter 16, on the Ecclesiastical System); Seignobos, "History of Mediæval and Modern Civilization" (chapter 13, on Cities of the Middle Ages and chapter 15, on the End of the Middle Ages); Robinson, "History of Western Europe" (chapter 18, on the People in Country and Town, and chapter 19, on the Culture of the Middle Ages); Robinson, "Readings in European History" (the chapters corresponding to those in his "History of Western Europe"); Ogg, "Source Book of Mediæval History" (chapter 15, on the Monastic Reform of the Tenth, Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries, and chapter 21, on Universities and Student Life); Adams, "Mediæval Civilization" (chapter 12, on the Growth of Commerce and its Results); Cunningham, "Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects, vol. II (secs. 95-96, 99-106); Gibbons, "History of Commerce."

Several books illustrative of conditions in England were also suggested, as for example, Cheyney, "Industrial and Social Life of England" (especially chapter 2, on Rural Life and Organization, chapter 3, on Town Life and Organization, and chapter 4, on Mediæval Trading and Commerce); Jusserand, "English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages" (Pt. II, on Lay Wayfarers, and Pt. III, on Religious Wayfarers); Traill, "Social England;" and Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce."

Character of the Work Done.

The following sketches, which were published in the school paper, illustrate the character of the work done by the class:

St. Hugh of Avalon.

I was among the founders of that famous Carthusian Order. When Bruno of Cologne started out with three companions and two laymen, I accompanied him. He had secured a tract of desert land from the bishop, and now he was starting out to found a monastery. We took several days to decide on the spot of our future home. We at last settled on a desolate place, where we built our cells and the cluster of huts which later resulted in the famous monastery called Grande Chartreuse.

We all lived together in the same precinct, each in his own cell, in which we were supposed to spend the majority of our time, although some monks who were not worthy of our order disregarded these restrictions and wandered about at will. The only time we were never allowed to leave our cells was when we went to a church service or when we had a special feast together. For twenty years I lived in this isolated way, having my food placed each day in the window by a layman. The food we had was very little; we were never allowed to touch meat, except on Sundays or on feast days. When we ate in the refectory with the brotherhood we were allowed fish and cheese besides our regular fare, which consisted of

bread and water and the few vegetables we could raise in our own little garden. I was left alone both morning and night without a soul for company. In the daytime I was taught the use of tools and the trade of a carpenter. I also spent a few hours every day copying manuscripts, chiefly of the Holy Scripture. Although this was hard work it helped to pass away a good many hours which would otherwise have been spent in idleness. In this line I was much needed, as good writers were very valuable at that time. For the little time allowed me for my garden I was very thankful, as it was the only pleasure I had. This life in the monastery was very hard, but I was particularly fitted for this work by the hand of God. All this time spent in the monastery was not wasted, for at last I was to receive my reward. At last I was to discard my horsehair garment which I had been compelled to wear next to my skin for the better part of my life.

When Alexander III imposed upon Henry II a penance for the murder of Becket, commanding him to build three religious houses in England, the first of them became the houses of the Carthusians at Witham, in Somersetshire, and of this house, I, St. Hugh of Avalon, was made the first prior. The life was much easier than that of the monk. I was allowed to eat with the brotherhood and had several other privileges which were before denied me. I was yet to rise higher in the service of the Church. After serving the Church as a prior for ten years, I became Bishop of Lincoln. I was now at the head of a group of monasteries, and had complete control of them, but I was subject to the archbishop. I also had control of some land which was allotted to me. I had the privilege of granting to knights tracts of land in return for which I usually received money in the form of tolls and church scot. I also had the power to settle disputes among the priors and other churchmen.

Although I helped to support this order with all my influence and good name, we were never very popular among the people. We, of all orders, were faithful to our vows to the very last and never withheld any of our restrictions; but in spite of this I am compelled to confess that the greatest number of dioceses we had in England at one time was nine, and I die now chiding the people for the lack of interest they had in our great work.

The Student.

To begin with let me say that, if I had to start my career over again, I would under no circumstances start out to be a student or a man of learning. In these times of war and bloodshed there is no room for the scholar or the artist or the philosopher. I can read and write, therefore I am despised and practically an outcast from society. But I was born free, although not rich, and therefore had to make my own living. I have not the build and strength of limb to become a fighting man, so I had no alternative. I received my education in a monastery, having for my teachers members of that great and good order of St. Benedict.

But when my education was complete I had to choose between two occupations. Either I must be a monk and live in a secluded monastery, or I must live a roving life, going from castle to castle doing small services in writing for the great nobles, for which, when I am fortunate to get any work, I am fairly well paid. Then after all my work is done my employer signs the paper with the point of his dagger, but I, who am despised, could have signed it with

the point of a pen. I lead a roaming life because I cannot stand being shut up in a monastery, but that is what I shall finally have to come to when I get too old to travel about. In many ways my lot would be better if I were a monk. As it is I am scorned by every one, taking their cuffs and insults because I am a man of learning instead of a man of war. The monk is respected because he is feared. He is a representative of the Church and an insult to him would bring quick and terrible retribution to the most powerful nobleman. The awful revenge of the Church is more to be feared than the anger of the king.

But although I am looked down upon, still my services are at times very important to the rich. If I can manage to be on hand at the knighting of some nobleman's eldest son or at the marriage of his eldest daughter, I reap a golden harvest. Drawing up the papers on these occasions is my chief and most lucrative duty. At other times I am hired to read papers and write answers to them and in this way I manage to make a miserable living.

The life of the man of learning of this age is positively the meanest existence of any, with the possible exception of that of the lowest serf. My advice to all boys of this age is to be fighting men, because your position in society depends entirely upon the strength of your arm and your skill with horse and lance.

EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS.

Harvard University has arranged an annual exchange of teachers with four of the colleges in the Middle West,—Colorado College, of Colorado Springs, Colo.; Grinnell College, formerly Iowa College, of Grinnell, Ia.; Knox College, of Galesburg Ill.; and Beloit College of Beloit, Wis.

Every year, until the arrangement is terminated, Harvard University is to send a professor who will spend an equal portion of half an academic year with each of the four colleges mentioned above, and during that time will give to the students of these institutions such regular instruction in their courses as may be arranged by their Faculties.

In return, each of the four colleges is expected to send to Harvard University each year one of its younger instructors for half a year, and during that time he will be appointed an assistant in some Harvard course; he will teach and will be paid as though he were a regular member of the Harvard University staff. Unless by special agreement, he will not be required to give more than one-third of his time to teaching, and may devote the rest of it to graduate and research work in any of the departments of the University. Each college is to notify Harvard University of the appointment as early as possible in the preceding year.

The arrangement will go into effect in the academic year 1911-12. The first professor of Harvard University to take part in this exchange will be Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph.D., LL.D., Litt.D., Eaton Professor of the Science of Government and Chairman of the Department of Government. His term of service will fall in the second half-year.

Civics in the High School

BY MISS FLORENCE E. STRYKER, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MONTCLAIR, N. J.

When a plan of study or a special method of teaching is presented by so honorable and eminent a body as the New York Board of Regents, it behooves us all to receive it with not only respectful consideration, but with a natural bias in its favor. We are sure it has been conceived with earnest thought and matured and digested in every detail, and that it carries with it the dignity and force of a sincere purpose and a progressive ideal. Yet, before we give up certain old and tried methods of work, that have borne the brunt of many a school-room campaign, and whose results have been found worth while by so many veterans in the field, it is but natural that we pause a moment and examine this older fashion before we adopt the new, in order to see if any reasonable foundation has existed for the faith that we have been following. The most striking feature in the report is the reversal of the usual order of presentation, giving to the high-school students the local unit first instead of beginning with the national system. It is stated that the old way generally failed to use the small amount of concrete material available, and civics became too bookish and abstract, and the pupils learned facts unrelated to daily life and daily duties, and that local government is historically the source of all government.

The little I have to say therefore on this report might be termed a *question* rather than a comment, and is not a defense, but an inquiry into some of the values of the other plan of teaching civics in the high school, the presentation of the national rather than the local unit point. As to the method of teaching civics in the grades below the high school, we are all heartily of one mind. The home, the school, the community are, to the child, the natural doors into this field of knowledge. He has no historical backgrounds, and these are the institutions that lie the nearest to him, and this the true method of approach; on this point there is no question.

But is the high school pupil in exactly the same mental state as the child in the grades? Is the method of approach, so admirable in its results with the boy or girl of eleven, twelve or thirteen, necessarily the only way in dealing with the maturer mind of the older student? Here, perhaps, there may be a question, or at least an opportunity for discussion.

In the first place, what is civics? Is it only the study of a great organization for the efficient conduct of a *business* that we call *government*, or is it the study of institutions whose meaning is the expression of a race's conception of the relationship men bear to one another in this world?

As the majority of us believe that these institutions, noted as they are in the ex-

perience of men for a thousand years, are well worthy of study from the historical side, we cannot teach civics without some consideration, however slight, of their origin and development.

It is stated in the report that because the local unit is the origin of all government it should be presented first. If we look back through the dim past to the family clan, to tribal relations, to the Teutonic folk-mote, this is of course true; but is it true as far as the average high-school boy and girl are concerned? What to him is the ancient hundred or the German mark or Frankish law codes. The only origins he is practically acquainted with are of the old colonial type, and have we the time to lead him into these distant fields in the woefully short period of a high-school course? Every high-school pupil has been drilled in American history in the grades; indeed, we often sadly say that is all the history he knows.

No matter how painfully deficient he may be along the lines suggested by the Committee of Eight, he is, as one boy once said proudly to me when I hinted that he seemed very ignorant of general history: "Well, anyway, I know all about them colonies." Even if civics is not taken up until the third or fourth year of the high school, there is still a latent knowledge of American history lying dormant in the student's mind. In beginning our work then along the line of the national system, the boy or girl meets old friends—the colony and its government, the government of England, the king and parliament, councils, courts, etc. These are familiar forms, and the tracing of even very simple lines of historical development he understands and appreciates and usually enjoys. He likes to bring this knowledge of the past to bear on the present, and once having grasped the great fundamentals so curiously and steadfastly interwoven into the very fibre of Anglo-Saxon lawmaking, he applies them, so to speak, down the whole line, picks out the various functions of government, the ideas of the separation of departments, the power of the executive, the limitations, of the legislative, grand and petty jury system, the county and town meeting, and the like, and traces them with interest as they appear in the national, state, county and local organizations.

He proceeds from the less *known* to the *unknown* in an apparently logical order, and if his study of American history has been a recent one, or is correlated with the civics, or if, better yet, he has had a good course in English history, then his attitude is still more intelligent. In beginning with the local unit, is it possible to obtain such continuity of thought? Do we lose on this side of our work? When we

attempt to trace the origins of the subordinate parts of government we find ourselves often in a confusion of relations and the mind of the student does not seem to respond so quickly to the stimulus. I do not mean for a moment to suggest we cannot teach any simple origin beginning with the local unit successfully, but it seems more difficult in actual practice.

Another condition I have noticed that bears on this inquiry is the striking *nationalistic* attitude of mind that we find so generally in children of high-school age. Why this is so I leave to the psychologists, but experience proves that the average student in the high school sees life in the large. The picturesque, the romantic, the dramatic, the big appeals to him as the roar of the world outside sounds near.

For some reason the United States government seems to him the most interesting form. It may be perfectly true that, as one eminent educator said in discussing this question, the only way the United States touches the boy is when he goes to the postoffice or some of his family or friends get called down for breaking the tariff laws. Technically this may be so, but, in fact, the high-school student is filled with an intense feeling of country.

In some great cities like New York, he may possess a definite civic pride and feel an interest in the personality of its rulers, but to the majority of our boys and girls the "real thing" is, as they express it, these United States. In our foreign children we cultivate this patriotism by many definite devices, and it bears its legitimate fruit in later years. Now we fully realize that it is our business as teachers to cultivate a feeling of state, city and town patriotism. We know that our deepest interests, our most important issues, lie there; this we all agree upon, but in order to do this, why is it necessary to shut off this great current that runs so strong in our students of national appreciation and loyalty? Why not use this power as the chief dynamo to electrify the whole vast system?

By beginning our work along the lines of *natural* interest, and taking advantage of this peculiar condition of adolescence, can we not create so keen a patriotism, so intense a feeling for the value of *government* that we carry this interest into all forms of local and state institutions. If the boy is taught an intelligent Americanism, he can be made to see clearly that he must be a good New Yorker or Jerseyman, and that the same necessity compels him to be interested in his town or city. It is possible, of course, with skilful teaching, to create strong interest in beginning work along the lines the syllabus suggests, but it is apparently *more difficult*.

I have asked many teachers as to their

experience in this respect, and almost always have received the same answer. The classes are indifferent to any governmental form but the national in the beginning of the work. Not long ago a dear little girl, one of our students out practicing, said to me with a sigh, "It's so hard to get them interested in Hoboken."

Of course, they should be interested in Hoboken, but whether opening the work with Hoboken streets or its fire department or its garbage plant is the best way to inspire these German and Italian children with a sense of the value and meaning of *government* is perhaps a question.

Another point, the most serious in my estimation, is the number of practical difficulties that seem to lie in wait for us when we begin with the local unit in high-school work. We are always limited by the actual overlapping of powers and troubled by the complexity of the modern local governmental organism.

In the November, 1910, number of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, in an article on the teaching of civics in the high school at Evanston, Ill., the author states the order to be as follows: national, state, local, for she says, "Local government in Illinois is much complicated with the mixed county-township system. Long experience has seemed to prove to us that for us the national government furnishes the simpler mode of approach, and since civics is taught to immature minds, it is of vital importance to arouse interest in it at first."

It is this confusion of interests that makes the work difficult. In teaching the city government we run up against the state. It has definite ways of controlling and changing the city organization, and we are forced to show to a high-school student these state activities which we can ignore in presenting the local unit in the grades. The county system is closely connected with the local community, and the state not only is inextricably interwoven with all forms of our daily existence, but it has also its own limitations; for illustration, in teaching our state government in New Jersey we find there are definite restrictions laid by the state constitution on the powers of the legislature, also a group of limitations laid on states by the United States. All this must be explained. In approaching the subject from the old way, the limitations on the state by the United States are understood, and the limitations laid by the state constitution is the only new matter to be absorbed, and is easily grasped. Indeed, the very study of so small a unit as the *school district* necessitates a study of state laws, state taxation, and, in rural communities, county jurisdiction as well.

So tremendously complex is our local government, it consists of such a mass of intricate details, that any adequate treatment of the subject seems at first to overwhelm the immature minds of our boys and

girls, somewhere in this forest of facts, they lose the broad outlines of the great fundamentals of government. The old way offers a simpler problem in the beginning to their untrained intelligence. In the outline offered in the syllabus, in the choice of topics and material, an effort has been made to minimize this objection as far as possible, and it is admirably constructed, but in practical teaching, even with the best-planned system, we are apparently bound to meet with this difficulty.

I do not pretend that the old way is the only way, or that any method of teaching is infallible, as Governor Wilson, of New Jersey said recently, "In reading history I do not find that all the righteousness and morality of a nation are confined to any one party." Gladly would we welcome any system that gives our high school pupils a knowledge of government. Indeed, we find in the normal school that the majority of our students have never been exposed to either method of teaching. They are eloquent advocates of a compulsory course in civics in every high school, and criticize sharply the curriculum that fails to provide proper training in citizenship.

I have then suggested certain difficulties that apparently appear in the treatment of the subject as it is outlined in the syllabus; perhaps these objections may be easily answered. After all, it is the teacher that counts, and the value of any method depends in the last analysis on the teacher. As far as making civics too bookish, or too abstract, or too literary, or in failing to use concrete material in classroom work, this is not a question of any particular system, only a question of teaching ability. There are teachers who would undoubtedly deaden any method, even one presented to us by divine inspiration; others who lack a sense of adequate proportion, who would emphasize a bill of attainder, another the Direct Primaries Act, but to the teacher whose equipment and enthusiasm are in harmony with the high-school requirements of to-day—the general plan of presentation is not the supreme end—indeed, we might sum up the matter in the words of an old negro doctor in Maryland, who, when asked by a lady if he practiced the allopathic or homeopathic system, answered, "I practices 'em both, Missy; but when things is right bad, I uses my brains."

HISTORICAL MUSEUMS.

—"The Historical Museum," by Professor Lucy M. Salmon (Educational Review, February), after a review of the various kinds of museums and the principles of their classification, describes briefly the very successful historical museums of Scandinavia, with especial reference to the open-air museum. That at Stockholm "is an extensive landed property of about seventy acres, situated directly opposite the Northern Museum. Its natural configuration is varied and attractive, and from many points gives a survey

of Stockholm and its environments. Here has been collected a remarkable series of buildings gathered from every part of Sweden, taken down and erected here to give an epitome of Swedish life. It is, indeed, a picture book of the past, on the leaves of which are illustrated the homes, the surroundings, the belongings, the whole life of former generations, and it thus seems to realize the ambitions of its founders and to be an image in miniature of the great fatherland. Not only does the collection represent the houses of nearly every class and station in Sweden, with all their exterior surroundings and interior furnishings, but the natural resources of the country are represented."

MAPS AND PICTURE-POSTALS.

BY H. A. CHAMBERLIN, MARY INSTITUTE,
ST. LOUIS, MO.

In order to make vivid the different scenes in French history, scores of postal cards and photographs had been passed round a class of young students. And even a small pictorial map of Paris, such as can be purchased anywhere in that city, had failed to give the interest and knowledge desired. So the scheme was devised by which the students themselves took part in making a map, which by its size and continual presence in the class room gave the desired familiarity.

On a window shade, six feet wide, an artist painted an outline of Paris. Then the students brought all the picture postals they could collect, and from these a selection was made according to their proportions, of all the buildings, arches, statues, and columns, most intimately associated with French history. These were cut out and pasted in their respective places.

To those knowing the city and even to those unfamiliar with it, there were many discrepancies of proportion, position, and vista are obvious. But the advantages are real. The students soon knew most of the buildings by sight, became familiar with their relations to each other, and easily associated them with the historical scenes about which they had been studying.

—A portrayal of "Francis Lieber—His Life and Work," by Professor Ernest Nys, of Brussels, is begun in the January number of the American Journal of International Law. "Soldier at fifteen, student persecuted by the police on account of his liberal tendencies, warm philhellenic enrolled among the volunteers who brought succor to Greece in revolt, tutor in the family of the illustrious Niebuhr, imprisoned on account of his political opinions, journalist in London, director of a college, then professor in a university in the United States, adviser of the American Government in the most dreadful crisis through which a nation ever passed, recognized authority on the law of nations, these several characteristics summarize the career of the man to whom these pages are dedicated."

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PUBLISHERS NOTICE.

This number of the Magazine is the last to be issued under the present management. The paper has been published at a loss for the past two years, and after using many means of advertising, the publishers have reached the conclusion that the constituency is not large enough to support such a paper when conducted as a private business venture. That it could be economically published by some historical or teachers association they are convinced, and they will gladly give detailed information concerning the finances and subscription lists of the paper to those who will use it legitimately for the attainment of such an end.

If arrangements are not made shortly for continuance, subscribers are given the privilege of accepting one of the offers below.

1. To receive in cash the equivalent of their unexpired subscriptions.

2. To select, as long as the stock holds out, an equivalent of their unexpired subscriptions, in back numbers of the Magazine, a list of the available issues of which is printed on the last page of this number.

The publishers regret the situation which compels them to discontinue the paper. They take this opportunity to thank the subscribers for their support.

MCKINLEY PUBLISHING CO.

Eleven Hundred History Teachers

A recent careful examination of the subscription lists of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, revealed the fact that there were upon those lists the names of over eleven hundred teachers of history who were not members of the American Historical Association, or of any of the three local associations of history teachers.

This number is about twice the size of the combined membership of the New England History Teachers' Association, the Middle States and Maryland Association, and the North Central Association (now part of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association); it is over one-third as large as the total membership of the American Historical Association; and it is greater than the membership of the Historical Association of England, an organization composed entirely of persons interested in the teaching of history.

In contemplating the existence of this body of teachers out of touch with any professional agency except the MAGAZINE, the query naturally arises, Why are they not members of these associations? The answer to that question is to be found partly in the facts (1) that the associations are not widely advertised, and (2) that these teachers think the associations will not give them the professional assistance which they wish. Evidently these are not careless and indifferent teachers, or they would not have become subscribers to the MAGAZINE; that they should subscribe to the paper and yet not join an association, means in most cases, that they were ignorant of the existence or purpose of these associations, or that they did not care to join.

Setting aside the cases of ignorance, there must be many among these eleven hundred who felt that the associations did not give them an equivalent for the membership fee of one or of three dollars. In the case of the three local associations of history teachers, such an idea could be dispelled by effective advertising, since the reports of these associations contain much that is valuable to the history teacher. In the case of the American Historical Association, the objection has greater point. A member of that association, prominent in secondary school work, said recently "for advancing historical knowledge among the common people, every number of your magazine has had far more influence than scores of American Historical Reviews, which reach only a few

scholars." Doubtless this correspondent wrote hastily, and would probably condemn the latitude of his own statement, but his attitude is one common to secondary and elementary teachers of history who are members of the association. The association has welcomed them into its membership; it has furnished them with its bulky reports and with the scholarly critical and American Historical Review; but it has rarely given them matter of immediate value in their work. It has, of course, applied itself to the study of history in the schools, and by its committee reports, particularly that of the Committee of Seven, it has had a great practical influence upon history teaching. Yet the two recent reports of most interest to all teachers of history below college grade, the report of the Committee of Ten on History in Elementary Schools, and the report of the Committee of Five upon History in Secondary Schools, were not issued to members at all, but were published through commercial publishing houses. With the hundreds of pages of diplomatic correspondence and of archive material annually published was it impossible to give these reports to members, reports which would have occupied not more than seventy-five and thirty pages respectively of the usual type-page of the association's publication?

Such questions naturally arise in the minds of the many teachers of history, members of the association who have not positions in college faculties.

Cannot the association extend its activities to embrace the hundreds of history teachers who have no professional inspiration from any other source? The Mississippi Valley Historical Association has lately accepted the North Central History Teachers' Association as one of its sections; the English Historical Association issues each year a series of leaflets of value to history teachers. Cannot our national association include within its purview not only the field of historical research and criticism, but the field of historical pedagogy as well? Can it not furnish inspiration to the history teachers in the schools of the country as well as to the professors in colleges and universities?

A large proportion of the eleven hundred teachers,—and hundreds of others who are not subscribers to the MAGAZINE,—are ready to join a national association which would advance their professional interests both in its meetings and its publications.

AN ACCUSATION.

"History, in spite of all the zealous discussion of its pedagogical conditions, is still one of the most carelessly and indifferently taught subjects, and one of the least intellectual value in the secondary school curriculum." Thus writes a reviewer in a recent number of "The Nation." The statement is made in connection with a favorable criticism of M. W. Keatinge's new work entitled "Studies in the Teaching of History," which the reviewer believes contains much food for thought and "a deal of chastening and inspiration" for teachers of history. The accusation seems to be a two-fold charge: That history is the most carelessly and indifferently taught, and that it is of the least intellectual value in the secondary school curriculum. If the writer meant to imply that the low intellectual value results from the method of teaching rather than from the content of history, a warrantable inference from the context, the charge resolves itself into a severe criticism of the methods used in history teaching.

A True Charge.

Such a charge made in the foremost critical journal of the country is one which cannot be ignored, and—worse than that—cannot truthfully be denied. To any one familiar with school administration the charge that history is the least successful subject in the curriculum accords well with experience. The figures compiled by the secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board show in the subject of history a greater difference between the ideals set by the Board's examinations on one hand and the practice of teachers upon the other, than is to be found in any other major subject. The experience of school administrators and the results of the Board's examinations do not indicate that there is no good teaching of history in this country, but rather that the many cases of careless and slovenly work bring discredit upon the whole profession. To know the cause of a disease is to be well on the way towards its prevention, if not its cure; and we may profitably ask the question, Why does this comparative failure of history teaching exist?

One Cause—the Subject-Matter. 1

Without doubt one cause of this failure lies in the nature of history itself; in its well-nigh endless series of facts, often possessing no apparent relation to one another. No one would ever think of memorizing the figures and details given in the problems of a book on mathematics; nor would a teacher dare require the memoriter recitation of the exercises in a language book; yet in a history text containing several times the amount of printed matter found in a language or mathematical work, the pupil is expected to know the facts given in any one or in all the sentences or paragraphs of the book. No wonder, with an untrained teacher, he feels at sea. In mathematics, the languages and the sciences

the aim is not to acquire a large content, but to learn a method, a habit, a mode of reaction, a rule by which a great many facts may be grouped together and judged. A single geometrical proposition mastered aids in the solution of many more; a single rule of syntax learned permits the formation of a great number of clauses and sentences; a single law of physics or chemistry worked out in the laboratory is the foundation for much higher work—but a single fact of history as given in the text-book or taught in the class-room, may have no apparent relation to anything else which the student is called upon to master. And not one fact alone, but hundreds, may be presented in the same disjointed way, to the despair of the pupil and the irritation of the teacher. We do not deny the existence of a philosophy of history, or even of a science of history, but we do mean to say that history, by the very nature of its subject-matter, presents a far greater number of discreet facts to the pupil's observation than any other major subject in the curriculum.

Administrative Officials. 2

Part of the blame for poor history teaching must be laid at the door of principals and schedule-makers. These have almost uniformly insisted upon the insertion of history into their curriculum. Whether this determination was a result of a desire to give to pupils the added culture of history courses, or of a desire to foster patriotism, or simply because some outside power required work in history is aside from our point. The fact is that school administrators have given to history a place of dignity in their schedules. But have they treated it as well in the matter of instructors? Experience has shown that almost every one upon the teaching staff is expected to possess the ability to teach history; it is often given over to a person whose teaching time is not full, frequently to the teacher of mathematics. A person who has had no training in the classics, or in modern languages, or in mathematics, cannot, fortunately, be placed in charge of classes in those subjects. In history, unfortunately, one possessing a good memory and a glib tongue may read his text-book a week ahead of the class, and call himself a teacher of history. Officials seeking the line of least resistance and the lowest margin of salary expense, thus reject the proposal to employ a trained history teacher, and instead turn the subject over to a partially occupied teacher of another subject.

College History Departments. 3

Still another part of the blame attaches, or until very recent years has attached, to the departments of history in colleges and universities. In the first place, the college professor often flattered himself that he was presenting history as a cultural subject, and he refused to face the fact that any of his students would ever be called upon to teach it. He laughed to scorn the pedagogy of history, and said that each

man would work out his own salvation or damnation. He would condescend to discuss historical methods with his students, so far as research methods went; but would turn away with disgust from all questions pertaining to the method of presenting history in the class-room. This picture does not apply to the new school of college professors who are enthusiastically interested in professionalizing the teaching of history, and it does not deny the fact that to-day many colleges are conducting history courses for teachers of the subject. But the fact remains that the professional chasm which existed in the past between the college professor and the school teacher of history has had much to do with keeping down the standard of class work in the subject.

In the second place, the colleges have required history for entrance, but they have stated only in the most general terms the work preliminary to the examination. "Greek history to the death of Alexander," "Medieval and Modern history as in —'s text," and similar statements are still to be found in many college catalogues. Such statements give no clue as to the method to be pursued in teaching the subject, no hint as to the important topics, and no guide as to the standard to be maintained by the school. It is gratifying to note here, too, that the colleges are losing this spirit of indifference and that a number of recent catalogues contain far more detailed statements. Much, however, still needs to be done in pointing out the topics to be emphasized and those to be omitted.

The Teacher Himself.

But, after all, we cannot lay all the blame upon others; it must be admitted that the teachers should share the criticism. Some have voluntarily entered upon the subject without proper preparation; some have not kept up to the times, and others have refused to accept suggestions for the betterment of their class-work. If his work is poor, the teacher cannot put off the entire responsibility upon his principal, or the colleges, or the nature of the subject—in the last analysis he is responsible; for he has voluntarily taken a work in hand, and morally he is bound to show himself a good workman or else leave his work for another to do.

Means of Improvement.

Admitting that history teaching even to-day is weaker than the instruction in any other major subject, we ask the question, how can the conditions be improved? They can be improved by principals, colleges, and teachers of history facing the facts and working together to raise the standard. The principal should realize that history adds no element of strength to his curriculum unless it is well taught; better that he should omit it altogether. Because it is more difficult to obtain good results from it, he should place the subject, not in the hands of his weakest, but of his strongest.

teacher; and he should seek for it a person who has been trained in history pedagogy.

Again, the college department of history must realize that it is responsible for the existence of poor history teaching in the schools. It can, if it will, materially improve conditions. Its courses should, it is true, be designed to impart general culture, and to present broad surveys of history to the ordinary undergraduate; to train the same undergraduate in scientific methods of collecting and weighing evidence and reaching generalizations; or even in the higher work to produce trained specialists in historical methods,—but with all of these one thing is still lacking—the realization that some of the students of the history department will become teachers of the subject.

No one objects to the insertion of homiletics, apologetics, or pastoral theology in a theological course; we train our law students not only in the facts of the law, but in the method of presenting a case before the court; and we furnish elaborate clinics and hospital experience for physicians. If history teaching is ever to be raised from the disrepute into which it has fallen, it will come from the conscious endeavor of the departments of history in our colleges and universities to produce not only men of culture, or historical specialists, but in addition to these, *teachers of history* for schools and colleges. In many parts of the country the history departments have awakened to the truth of this fact; courses are given in a number of universities for the training of history teachers; and history courses in the summer schools have helped greatly. But much more needs to be done.

Professionalization.

The great desideratum to-day is the erection of history teaching into the realm of a profession. By a profession we mean one of the more intellectual callings of life, possessing known standards, objective methods of preparation, a strong *esprit de corps* among its members, and some recognized service or standing in the community. History teaching by no means measures up to this definition to-day, in spite of the great advances that have been made in the last few years. But there are signs of a wider professional interest among history teachers. Colleges have never before done so much for the present and the future teacher of history; many college-trained students of history are entering secondary schools, and even elementary schools; history teachers' associations are stronger and more active than ever before. Much can be done within the next year if all will unite to strengthen the professional spirit. The coöperation of all history teachers in schools and colleges is needed; and the harmonious action of local and sectional associations must be established. Over all there should spread the genial influence of the greatest power for good in history teaching in this country—the American Historical Association.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Dr. Albert H. Lybyer has been promoted to a full professorship in Medieval and Modern European History in Oberlin College.

Miss Mary H. Cutler, formerly of Wheaton Seminary, has been appointed head of the History Department of Mills College, California.

Professor Charles H. Haskins was a delegate from Harvard University to the Congrès du Millénaire Normand, June 6th to 10th.

Mrs. Lois K. Mathews of Wellesley College, has been elected Associate Professor of American History at the University of Wisconsin.

Professor U. B. Phillips has been appointed Professor of History at the University of Michigan.

Dr. Arthur L. Cross has been promoted to a Professorship of English History at the University of Michigan.

Dr. William E. Lunt, of Wisconsin, has been elected Professor of History and Political Science at Bowdoin College.

Dr. Sydney K. Mitchell has been made Assistant Professor of History at Yale University.

Dr. R. L. Schuyler has been appointed Assistant Professor of History at Columbia.

Professor Bernard Moses of the University of California, has retired from teaching. His successor is Professor David P. Barrows, recently Director of Education of the Philippine Islands.

Professor Theodore S. Woolsey has resigned his Chair in International Law at Yale on account of ill health.

Mr. O. C. Hormell has accepted a position in the History Department at Bowdoin College. His successor at Clark College is Mr. R. W. Paterson.

Recently appointed instructors in the Department of History, Politics and Economics at Princeton University are Dr. D. H. Magruder, Mr. J. A. Estey, and Mr. J. A. Winston.

The Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior announces an examination for the position of editor (male) in the Bureau, paying a salary of \$2000 a year. Applications must be filed at Washington not later than September 23, 1911.

The attention of history teachers is called to the fact that the Blue Print Department of the University of Illinois has issued small blue print maps of Paris in 1789 and Florence about 1470. These are about eight by ten inches, and can be obtained from the Department for five cents a copy.

The Short Ballot Organization, an association interested in explaining a method of simplifying politics, issues a series of free pamphlets which will be found interesting

by all teachers of history and government. Those already issued and future numbers will be sent free to teachers upon request to the Secretary, Richard S. Childs, 383 Fourth Avenue, New York.

The North Central Association has become the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and an executive committee of six; E. C. Page, De Kalb Normal School, Chairman, will arrange the program, and conduct the section meetings. The Secretary is Mr. Howard C. Hill, Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Ill.

Labor Laws and their Enforcement, with special reference to Massachusetts, being volume two of "Studies in Economic Relations of Women," edited by Susan M. Kingsbury, Ph.D., of Simmons College, and Head of the Department of Research of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston, has been published by Longmans.

The July number of the New England Historical and Genealogical Register contains an article on Bells of Harvard College, by Dr. A. H. Nichols, of Boston.

The Annual Report for 1910 of the New England Association, which was unavoidably delayed, has been received from the printers, (and will shortly be in the hands of members of the North Central and Middle States Associations as well as those of the New England Association). Accompanying the Report will go a catalogue of the Collection of Aids to History Teaching, samples of the Henderson collection of pictures and a copy of the descriptive pamphlet which Dr. Henderson has prepared to accompany the collection.

HISTORICAL PICTURES AS SOURCE MATERIAL.

MABELLE L. MOSES,
Secretary, Committee on Historical Material, New England History Teachers' Association.

One of the most difficult problems before the teacher, whatever his subject, is so to present the work that it shall be real to the student, something which he actually comprehends, and which, therefore, becomes a part of his every-day thinking. The student of mathematics gains such a knowledge because by actual manipulation of figures he acquires a sense of power to attack new problems; the student of language gains such a knowledge through his increased facility in the use of the language which leads him constantly into broader fields. For the student of history the problem is more difficult. Too often he sees the facts only as they stand on the printed page without being able to grasp the social and economic features by which the political must be interpreted, or indeed without grasping the true relation of the political,

because he lacks the perspective which makes such a grasp possible.

We know what a trip to the National Capitol does to make the workings of the American Constitution real to the boy or girl; what a visit to the State House does to throw light on the government of the State; how a trip to Mt. Vernon helps to make Washington really live in the imagination; how a visit to the house in Washington where Lincoln died, and which now is used as a museum for the preservation of Lincolniana, helps to make vivid the circumstances of the death of the martyred president, and quicken the sense of the greatness of the man and the greatness of his services to the nation.

This same sort of inspiration in European history may be gained by the older student through a trip to Europe. A visit to Stirling Castle gives one an understanding of the Battle of Bannockburn, of Robert Bruce and William Wallace, which pages of history could not give; a visit to Fountains or to Furness Abbey makes real the cloistered life of the Middle Ages; the wonderful collection of manuscripts in the Bibliotheque Nationale makes real the services of the monks in the preservation of learning through the so-called "Dark Ages"; a visit to Mont Saint Michael, Saint Malo, Chartres, Chester, enables one to recreate in one's own imagination the town life of the Middle Ages.*

Such knowledge must come to him through illustrative material which in the hands of the skillful teacher may be made to quicken his interest and help him to interpret facts which otherwise would escape him.

In the publication of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for April and May of this year, a bibliography was given of the material—maps, charts, books, and wall pictures—which the Committee upon Historical Material has already collected. It is the plan of this committee further to extend its work by reproducing from authentic material illustrations which will be of value to students and teachers. It is hoped that by making this material accessible to teacher and student at a nominal price the work in Greek and Roman history which is already so successfully carried on in many school-rooms will be extended to Mediaeval and to English History.

Without the generous interest and co-operation of Dr. Ernest F. Henderson, who has placed at the disposal of the committee material which he has been years in acquiring, the work of the committee must have made slow progress. Because of this help, however, we are able to announce that in September we shall offer one series on the Court of Louis XIV, and the beginning of two other series, one on the Kings and Queens of England, the other on Roman remains in the provinces of the Empire.

* For the younger student the knowledge of American History may be vivified by a visit to the State or National Capital, to the town or city council; but the second method of obtaining first hand knowledge, the trip to Europe, is for him quite impossible.

In starting this work the co-operation of teachers and a certain amount of patience on their part are needed. The subjects chosen to start with will of course appeal to one teacher much more than to another, but it is hoped in time to fill the widest needs and to furnish a mass of this fine illustrative material such as no one text book can possibly show. It has seemed to the committee in charge of the work that here is a grand opportunity for usefulness. The single sheets, which can readily be distributed among the pupils and preserved in their note-books have thus a great advantage over illustrations in books and can be used with any and every text book.

It is impossible here to describe in detail each of the pictures that are to form even our first installment; but a word or two can be said as to the definite ideas that are to be gained from some of them. There are nearly a dozen pictures showing the exterior and interior of the palace of Versailles. It should be brought home to the pupil that this is one of the grandest monuments of modern history, that it is the outward and visible sign of the glory of the French monarchy, that this palace was the centre of art, of fashion, and of etiquette for all the courts of Europe. The pictures show how the palace developed from the little hunting box of Louis XIII to the great structure, 900 feet long, of the end of Louis XIV's reign.

A dozen more pictures are devoted to the Fountains of Versailles, which, as is well known, consciously tend to show the glory of Louis XIV as the sun-king—we have the birth of Apollo, his rising from the waves with his great steeds and his turning in to rest in the Grotto of Thetis after the day's work is done. We have several fountains from the Labyrinth, too, each illustrating a fable of Aesop, the object of the whole having been, we are told, to teach the Dauphin his fables. We have curiosities in the way of fountains too—the Marais or Swamp from which every leaf and every blade of grass spouted forth its separate stream of water, and the water theatre, where the scenery was formed by screens of falling water. Our collection gives further a number of Portraits: of Louis XIV, of the Queen, of Madame de Montespan and Madame de Maintenon, of the King's brother always known as Monsieur, of that brother's wife always known as Madame, of the Dauphin and Dauphiness, of the Duc d'Anjou, the Duchess of Bourgogne, of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough.

The most curious pictures in the collection are those relating to fêtes, celebrations and ceremonies: Balls in the Galerie des Glaces, illuminations or fire works in the parks, open air plays, receptions of ambassadors and foreign princes, very curious pictures of the "apartments" which took place three times a week ("drawing-rooms" we should call them in modern court parlance) which show the costumes and head-

dressess and which show the peculiar etiquette of seating one and one only in an arm-chair, others in chairs with a back, others in chairs without a back, one on a mere stool, and others standing. Several pictures illustrate the magnificent funerals of French royalty: the torch light procession to St. Denis; the lying in state in the receiving-vault, the final grand ceremony.

Several pictures, finally, are devoted to the early history of Louis XV: the entry of his little intended bride, the Spanish infanta aged four; his meeting with her; his own entry into Rheims; the procession before the cathedral, the crown with which he was crowned. In our other series, of the portraits of the Kings and Queens of England, the first numbers to be issued will be fine portraits of James I, of Charles I and his wife, of William and Mary, of George I, of George II, of George III, and of his wife, Queen Charlotte.

With proper encouragement there is no length to which the committee is not prepared to go in the publication of the kind of material that will visualize and animate history. Suggestions will be gladly received.

The committee is prepared to fill orders, either for the series of the Kings and Queens of England or for that of the Court of Louis XIV. Prices (introduction), \$2.00 per hundred; \$.05 for two; or \$.03 each; (postage extra). Information will be gladly furnished or pictures sent, on application to Isabelle L. Moses, Secretary for the Committee, Deer Isle, Maine, R. F. D. 101 (address, July 4 to Sept. 15). After Sept. 15, 19 Putnam Street, West Newton, Mass.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION.

By vote of the North Central History Teachers' Association, on Saturday, May 20th, at their annual meeting, held in the Swift Engineering Hall of Northwestern University, at Evanston, Ill., the association as a separate organization was discontinued and it was made the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. This action was the result of an invitation from the Mississippi Valley Association and discussion at the joint meeting of the two organizations. The new teachers' section was organized by electing an executive committee of six members, consisting of E. C. Page, of De Kalb Normal School, Chairman; Howard C. Hill, Oak Park High School, Secretary; A. H. Sanford, La Crosse State Normal School; Laurence Larson, University of Illinois; Miss Alice E. Wadsworth, Evanston Township High School; and Miss Josephine Cox, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis. The program was carried out under Dr. Woodburn's guidance as announced in the May Number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*. The attendance was small because the meeting came at the end of a four-day joint meeting with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

CALIFORNIA HISTORY TEACHERS.

The semi-annual meeting of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association was held on July 15th, at Berkeley, in connection with the summer session of the University of California. Following as it did the National Education Association Convention at San Francisco and with excellent speakers as an attraction, the session was attended by about 150 history teachers.

With peace as the general topic, the first address was by President David Starr Jordan, of Stanford University, on "War—The Other Side." The speaker showed clearly that war is anything but glorious, as so often depicted. The statement was made, on good authority, that the United States could have secured her demands from Spain without recourse to war.

President S. C. Mitchell of the University of South Carolina followed with an eloquent address on "The Present Status of the Peace Movement," in which he outlined the forces making for peace. During the meeting notice was also given that free literature on peace can be secured from the American School Peace League, 405 Marlborough Street, Boston, and from the American Association for International Conciliation, Sub-station 84, New York City.

Mr. H. W. Edwards, of the Oakland High School, made some useful suggestions in regard to the teaching of peace, in which the high school teacher of history has an especially good opportunity. The cost of war should be emphasized, letting the facts speak for themselves. The teacher should bring home to the boys and girls their power and responsibility in the peace movement.

Book Notices**SHEPHERD'S HISTORICAL ATLAS.**

A work of very great interest to every teacher of history in the country is the new "Historical Atlas," by Professor W. R. Shepherd, and published by Henry Holt & Co. The work adequately meets the insistent demand for an historical atlas in English. The map work is beautifully done by German map-makers and lithographers, whose work cannot be equalled by English or American workmen and designers. The editorial work has been ably done by Prof. Shepherd, who has had the advice of many American historical scholars. While the atlas has the same general appearance as the well-known work of Putzger, it possesses, in addition to the fact of its being in English, two very decided advantages over the German atlas. It contains many more maps than its German rival, those devoted to topical subjects showing a marked increase; and it does not possess the German antipathy to including maps of England and of France, which are woefully lacking in the Putzger.

When so much is given which we have not possessed previously in any atlas in any language, it may seem ungracious to suggest others that are not included; yet it must be said that at least two maps could have been inserted which would have added materially to its usefulness: one showing the territorial growth of Prussia, similar to the ones in Putzger, and one of all Europe in 1815.

The atlas is by far the most serviceable contribution to historical pedagogy which has been issued from an American press in many years. It will become the standard work for class-room and library use. The thanks of English-speaking teachers of history should be given to Professor Shepherd and to his publishers for the scholarly manner in which the editorial and mechanical difficulties of such a publication have been mastered.

["Historical Atlas," by William R. Shepherd. 321 pp. Price, \$2.50. Henry Holt & Co.]

MARRIOTT'S SECOND CHAMBERS.

Reviewed by John Haynes, Ph.D.

This volume, the preface states, is really a part of a larger work which is in preparation. It was not primarily intended as a contribution to the pending question with reference to the British House of Lords. Nevertheless, its conclusions are directly applicable to that question. The book contains chapters on the British House of Lords, the American Senate, the German Bundesrath, the French Senate, the upper houses of Australia, Canada and South Africa, together with a chapter briefly treating various other second chambers. The treatment is not at all exhaustive, even for any particular country. The account of the United States Senate gives the impression that it is an entirely satisfactory institution. No hint is given of the widespread dissatisfaction with it which exists in this country, nor of the strong and persistent demand for the popular election of Senators. The bibliography fails to contain the names of some books which would have given the author scholarly criticisms by American writers. On the title page the work is called an inductive study in political science. The conclusions drawn from this study are that bicameralism is an essential attribute of federalism and that it is equally indispensable to a unitary State. Neither of these propositions seems to be really proved. Nor do the cases of abandoned unicameral governments at all prove that such a government in the future might not be eminently successful. The book closes with the statement of various proposals which have been made for reforming the House of Lords.

["Second Chambers." By J. A. R. Marriott, A.M. Pp. vii, 312. Oxford University Press, 1910. Price, \$1.75.]

Correspondence**GUTENBERG BIBLE.**

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Sir: I beg to call attention to the note in your number for March, 1911, concerning the frontispiece for that number, a reduced fac-simile of the last lines from the Book of Revelation of the 42-line Latin Bible printed by Gutenberg at Mainz before 1450-55, which, according to your note, is being reproduced in fac-simile by H. Welter, of Paris. The facts of the case are that the plan of reprinting the 42-line Bible was originally conceived by the Insel-Verlag, of Leipzig. Later, Welter announced his intention of issuing a reproduction of this work, and there was a good deal of feeling over the conflict of the two projects. This, however, has been removed by the withdrawal of Welter's proposition, leaving the reproduction of the 42-line Bible in the Insel-Verlag, and taking upon himself the reproduction of the 36-line Bible.

THEODORE W. KOCH.

Ann Arbor, Mich.

WHAT IS HISTORY?

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

DEAR SIR: In Prof. Cheyney's address in your December, 1910, issue, it seems to me that he is guilty of the same serious fallacy that the most of the present-day historians commit. Like them he is led away by a false analogy between human beings and material things. Generally, this modern school conceives of its subject as of the observational sciences, such as chemistry, physics, geology. But right there, to my mind, they make their egregious mistake. These subjects deal with inanimate substance, while history treats of conduct and action which result from ideals and motives, the most intangible matters in the whole domain of human interest. The chemist knows that gold is the same everywhere and all the time, the historian cannot find two instances in his field that are the same in all respects. Hence, there can be no such thing as the science of history. All of us agree that there is no such thing as the science of our daily life, still less can there be a science of our past life.

Again, when we reflect upon the utter impossibility of getting all the facts touching any event, we see how completely the suggested parallel with science breaks down. With the myriad of statements and the ocean of information provided for us every morning and afternoon by the papers and every minute of the waking day by our own senses, so little do we know of the present that no thoughtful man pretends to predict human destiny for the next twenty-hours even.

Prof. Cheyney appeals for a passionless study of the past, with the aim of finding the truth in the same neutral way that

the scientist pursues his labor. Is that possible if we are to recreate any segment of the past? The vital element there will entirely elude us because we overlook the part played by human feeling; or, in other words, that decisive force of human nature. Can we give the truth if we are not in sympathy with the subject that we are describing?

As I have said, no one knows the present, still less can he know the past. But the contemplative minds among us observe their fellow-creatures and reach conclusions or receive impressions. When they clothe their opinions of any portion of the path that the race has trodden, in readable language, we have a good history, when they do this with literary skill we have a great history. All histories that have lived have had the personality of the author shadowed on nearly every page, the scientific ones, the monographs and studies, composed in colorless fashion, are dust-covered in the library. If history has any work at all to do in shaping the lives of men, it will do so as a form of literature, as a species of culture and not as an example of scientific research aside from the basic influences of natural environment.

Lest some may think this note is a case of "sour grapes" I may say that I am a Ph.D. in history from a leading university, and have written several books that are as scientific and as dull history as anybody can write.

"STUDENT."

Washington, D. C.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

It is the general impression that the recent meeting of the history teachers of the Middle States at Washington was not well attended. The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States, and Maryland also, is making strenuous efforts to keep its attendance up to a respectable number. I for one could not leave my duties to attend the meeting at Washington, and I know a number of other teachers who would have attended had they been able to get away. History teachers hesitate to go to the Thanksgiving meeting of the General Association unless there is to be some discussion of their own subject at that time. What reason can there be for not holding both meetings at the same time and place? A large majority of the teachers to whom I have been able to speak would welcome such an arrangement. The number of associations that one must attend multiplies so rapidly that the reasons for having two meetings where one would suffice must be exceedingly cogent. May one ask for an expression of those reasons in your columns?

Respectfully yours,
EDGAR DAWSON.

TESTING COLLATERAL READING.

EDITOR HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

The excellent article by Prof. Perkins in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for February offers several points for a comparison of experience by teachers in testing collateral reading. Hoping that there may be expressions from others, I offer a few suggestions on a plan which has been helpful to me.

I think that all teachers who attempt something in the way of collateral reading realize that the great difficulty is in testing it in such a way that the teacher knows that the student has read the assigned work, and also knows what such work by the student is worth. To reduce to a minimum the temptation of students to copy outlines worked out by other students, and to test such outlines when handed in, I have found the following method helpful: Students are required to do collateral reading on an average of twelve to fifteen pages a day in American History, and outline such reading in a loose-leaf note-book. These leaves are to be removed from the note-book, fastened together with a clasp and handed in each day. The student's name is on the margin, so it will not show when the note-book is finally completed and bound together. By having the work handed in each day at class time, it reduces to a minimum the temptation to copy, because such work is usually done by a student when he gets behind in his work. To be able to recall at any time, whether work was handed in on time, I use a stamp dater on the papers each day. Papers are handed back to the students in time for review before the test at the close of each six-weeks period, and are then arranged in note-book in order of dates as stamped on them.

The whole process of testing the reading is about as follows: I have outlined on half sheets and in permanent files the readings to be assigned. We have followed the suggestion which Prof. Perkins makes of having several duplicate copies of books for outside reading. I have outlined the read-

ing in each book which the student may offer as collateral reading. When work is handed in, I run through the papers quickly with the dater and group readings—Gordy in one pile, Bassett, Federalist System in another, &c. Then I take up each group and glance through them, comparing them with my own outline of that particular reading. If copying has been done, this will likely reveal it. It shows whether the student has grasped the important points in the reading. It keeps readings up to date, and does not require very much time on the part of the teacher—not as much time as one would think. It takes about fifteen to twenty minutes each day to check up the readings. The most work about the plan as far as the teacher is concerned, is in outlining the work beforehand, but it pays to do it.

If I am pressed for time, I simply use the dater for a few days, and then test by comparison. This is in line with a suggestion which I heard a University Professor make—"You need not eat a tub of butter to tell whether it is good or bad—sample it." The student does not know what work is tested completely, in fact he does not know but what it all is (and I do test most of it); if work comes in late, the dater shows it; some questions are asked in class upon the work—consequently there is little trouble in getting the reading done.

W. P. SHORTRIDGE,

Elkhart (Ind.) High School.

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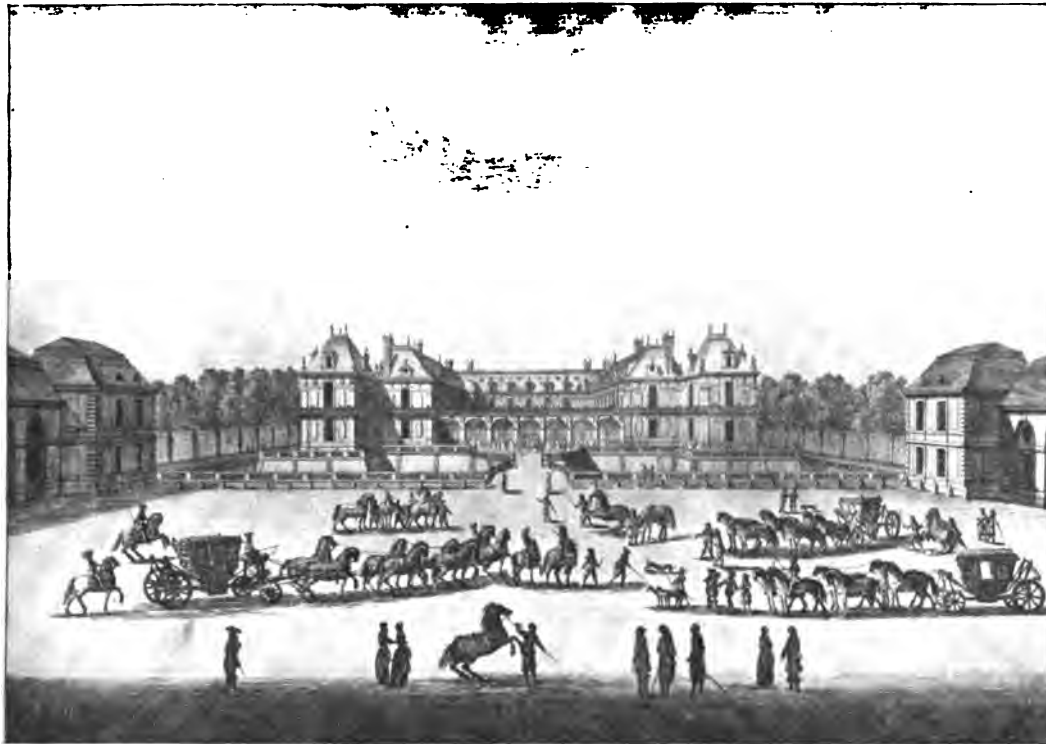


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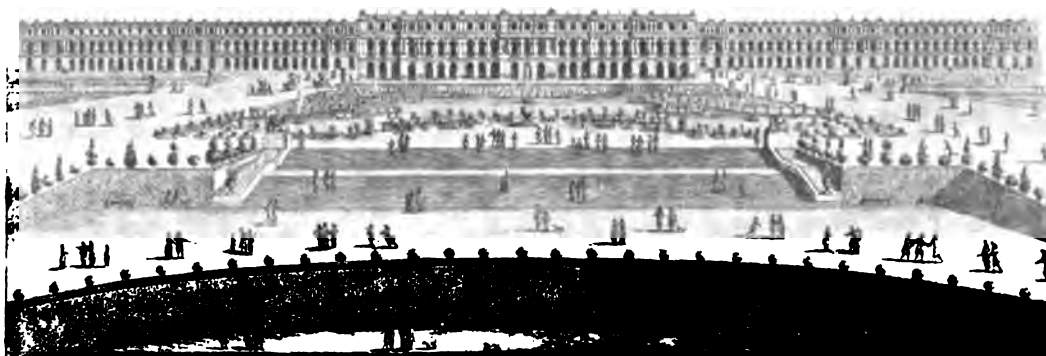
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PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1912.

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BY PROFESSOR LUCY M. SALMON, VASSAR COLLEGE.

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The X-ray that Mr. Dooley has turned on our educational system shows that it is made, not by governing boards, not by university presidents and school superintendents, not by college faculties and teaching corps, not by alumni and students, but by public opinion. It seems pertinent therefore to ask what kind of a teacher has been produced by public opinion and also what is being done by the teacher to educate public opinion.

The evolution of the teacher through public opinion corresponds fairly well with the evolution of our system of ethics. This system has passed through the stage of warfare where every man's hand has been against every man, through the stage of renunciation where the salvation of his own soul was the chief concern of every man, to the present stage of social service characterized by zeal to serve others. The fourth stage anticipated by Prince Kropotkin, that of mutual aid, seems not far distant.

Our educational system to-day, of which the teacher forms a part, reflects our present general social system with its eagerness to serve others. It has passed through the period of warfare when education was impounded with the rod, and through the period of negation and indifference, and has reached a stage characterized by perhaps an over-zeal for serving others through the accumulations we have ourselves stored up. The period of mutual aid, when through investigation and research we do our part to advance the outposts of knowledge, is yet before us.

The teacher of to-day is a product of the period when all education was controlled by the principle of authority rather than by that of research and when it was the chief function of the teacher to pass on to others a body of accumulated knowledge. This condition is reflected in the language still used,—recite, recitation, recitation building, teacher, lessons, assignment, excuse, cut, pedagogy, are all linguistic records of a period when education was passive rather than active, negative rather than positive, receptive rather than creative. The new phrases coming into the language to-day reflect the newer ideas and show how closely our educational system has followed in the wake of newer industrial and social developments,—vocational schools, education for efficiency, educational activities, school centers, social service, all indicate a

belief that the school must lend the helping hand in the struggle for existence in which we are told we live. Our educational ideals and our social ideals are all one, service is for each the end to be reached.

Yet the question must be raised whether these ideals represent the final conception of our aims as individuals in the relation we sustain to others in society and in the educational system. Certainly our conception of social service as an ultimate end must break down of its own weight. A condition of society where all are to serve others is impossible since service demands some one to be served as well as some one to serve. One-half of society is therefore deprived of its right to serve in order that the other half may exercise that right. It is a matter of common observation that parents who have indulged themselves in the luxury of unselfishness often have the most selfish children since these have had no opportunity of expressing their possible desires to serve others.

In our educational system perhaps over-zeal to serve his pupils has led the teacher to accumulate stores of multifarious learning until he becomes, like Dr. Casaubon, a storehouse of information but without the power of productivity. But here, as in our social relations, if the competent professor studies a special branch of learning for the college student, it is possible that he is thereby depriving the college student of his inborn right to study it for himself; if the child is sent to school to learn, he may never learn how to learn.

The disadvantages to the teacher himself are serious, even fatal to his success as a teacher. Villari tells us of Marsilio Ficino that "his mind was so thoroughly saturated with learning as to become incapable of independent thought." While it is probable that few minds to-day reach the point of saturation, it is true that as teachers we often seem incapable of independent thought. This may be due in part to the conditions in which the teacher is placed; he has had no share in organizing the educational system of which he is a part, obedience to authority is part of the creed taught him at his entrance into the profession, and his surroundings make him inert and lacking in initiative and in constructive power. If educational authorities consider primarily the welfare of the child and are indifferent to that of the teacher, if they do not realize that the welfare of the child depends immediately on that of the teacher since the child cannot advance if the teacher lags behind, if they are proud of their material equipment rather than of the intellectual equipment of the teaching force, if the teacher is the hired employee rather than the intelligent coöperator, then the teacher must lose courage, he must lose mental elasticity, he looks at everything at short range, his own standards become low, in time he ceases to be a learner, and he defends himself and his position whenever possible improvements are suggested. The teacher in spite of himself joins the innumerable throng of those who, to use the happy phrase of the Secretary of the Council of the American Historical Association, "feel the pain of a new idea." Public opinion has in a measure made him what he is.

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It remains to ask what the teacher himself is doing to educate public opinion, what measures he is taking to change his condition of passivity into one of activity, what he is doing to hasten the arrival of that period of mutual aid when each shall work "for the joy of the working" and all shall alike serve and be served.

An admirable report on the status of history teaching in the high school has been issued somewhat recently by the University of Indiana. The questionnaire on which it is based elicited much valuable information in regard to the work of the teacher for his pupils.

Yet is not a new form of questionnaire needed that shall show what the teacher of history is doing to encourage what Principal Caird calls "the other and higher function of extending the bounds of knowledge." We have questioned the teacher about everything and everybody except himself. Do we not need a questionnaire that shall disclose what the teacher of history is doing to increase his own productive powers through advanced study, through intelligent travel, through communication with other workers in his own field, through personal investigation of historical questions, through positive contributions to the sum total of historical knowledge? All this we need to know, for the teacher before entering the profession has been a collector; when he becomes a teacher, he is a distributor; at this point he often stops, but he needs to press on to the next stage of development and become a producer.

The teacher must be a producer first of all for his own good,—to prevent arrested development. Scholarship without research and productivity ends in dry rot, as on the other hand research without the foundation of scholarship is the house built on the sand. Scholarship and research render each other mutual aid, they are the obverse and the reverse sides of the coin,—each is incomplete without its complement. Unless the teacher had both scholarship and creative powers, he is but half the man he ought to be in the position he occupies. The true creative spirit is born in all and is developed from within, not from pressure exerted from without. Every person aims to produce something whether it be a business, a book, a school, a building,—it matters little in what form the creative spirit finds its outlet, provided it does find an outlet. If it does not, stagnation must result. Many a teacher is, as Emerson once said of New York City, "a sucked orange." "Be no longer a Chaos," urges Teufelsdröckh in Sartor Resartus, "but a World, or even World-kin. Produce! Produce! Were it but the pitifullest infinitesimal fraction of a Product, produce it, in God's name. 'Tis the utmost thou hast in thee: out with it, then."

The teacher must be a producer if he is to train his pupils to produce, for how indeed can they learn how to learn and how to produce from one who has not himself lighted his own fire from the altar of Prometheus. It is perhaps due more to the unproductive teacher than to any other one cause that the creative instinct in the child is stifled and crushed out rather than cultivated and trained. The boy of six who plans a church, arranges for pulpit, decides between the respective merits of an orchestra and an organ loft, and carries out his plan with empty boxes and kindling wood does not make a church that would command the respectful attention of an architect, yet the habit of mind fostered by such plans is sure to develop into creative construction later on if guided by a teacher who has himself been trained to be a producer.

The teacher must be a producer in order to pay the debt of gratitude he owes to his profession. He must pass on with increase to those who come after him the inherited wealth he has received from those who have gone before him.

The teacher must be a producer in order to do his part in overthrowing ignorance and superstition. The warfare of an earlier day was directed against sin. The warfare of to-day is against sin in the form of ignorance, and the chief

weapons with which that warfare is waged are investigation and research.

It may be urged as an unanswerable objection to the plea for research and productivity on the part of the teacher of history that both time and strength fail for accomplishing it, that under present conditions of teaching it must remain for the teacher of history an unsolved and unsolvable problem how to give to teaching the physical strength demanded by it and yet to reserve enough strength for production during the summer, how to add to mental capital that will enable him to teach and yet not give the summer to creative work. Yet the problem is not unsolvable and the objection raised is not an argument. The real problem is one of rearrangement of time, of conservation of strength to attain this end. "He that saveth his life shall lose it" is as true to-day in the educational world as it is in the spiritual world.

It may also be urged that the art of teaching is incompatible with the scientific methods of research,—that art is synthetic and research analytic and that the two processes cannot be carried on with equal success by the same person. Yet this objection confuses the two processes by assuming that they are necessarily carried on simultaneously,—there can be no conflict and no incompatibility between a scientific method of research and an artistic presentation of the results of that research.

Public opinion is in part responsible for this chasm between the teacher as a purveyor of information and the teacher as an active force,—public opinion that has in large measure been created within and by the educational body itself. There is a somewhat widespread belief that knowledge of methods of teaching history and of methods of historical research are mutually exclusive, and on all sides are heard the mutual recriminations of the teacher and the investigator. "He may know his subject, but he doesn't know how to teach," is the charge the teacher in the secondary school brings with fine scorn equally against the mere college professor and the investigator. "He may know how to teach, but he does not know his subject," is the retaliatory charge of the superior college professor and the self-sufficient investigator. Yet it may well be asked how a person can teach what he does not know, how he can teach how to learn if he has not himself learned how to learn, how he can have the ability to investigate a subject and not have the ability to communicate to others knowledge of the process of investigation, and to train them in this process.

What can be done by educational authorities to promote and to facilitate the spirit of research among their teachers?

One means of encouragement would be the establishment of the sabbatical year for all teachers who wish to avail themselves of it, and the fullest discussion of the advantages that would accrue from it. Fellowships for research are offered by many colleges and universities and the existence of these should be made more widely known. The establishment by boards of education of fellowships to be open to the teachers of the community would be of mutual help to teachers and their pupils. Adequate salaries would enable many teachers to take an occasional term at a summer school and thus gain new inspiration to be passed on to others. Could a proportion of the members of our governing boards of education be chosen both by and from the teaching force greater efficiency might result. If the principle of the direct primary could become an issue in our educational as well as in our political organization, more effective work might be done. Could a larger place be given to the teacher in the discussion and consideration of educational questions when they come up before school authorities, greater educational self-respect might ensue. If the unit of measuring a teacher's work could be made, not the number of hours actually spent in the class-room, but the number of pupils for whose training the teacher is made responsible, more effective work would be done by both teacher and pupil. If the material equip-

ment provided for the teaching of history were made as complete and satisfactory as is that for the study of science, the teachers of history, now too often expected to make bricks without straw, would take heart.

It must rest with the teacher to do his part in creating an intelligent public opinion that shall at once demand research and productivity on the part of the teaching corps, and at the same time furnish the material opportunities for achieving this end. It is as much the function of the school and the college to create an intelligent public opinion as it is to educate its pupils and its students.

What are the opportunities available for the teacher who has the desire to explore some field of history and make its explanation his own? Every field is open to him, though local history and local biography may seem specially advantageous and fruitful. The means at hand are first of all the town itself as it has developed from its original settlement carrying on its face the records of its growth; the town library, local records, loans from the state library and even from the Library of Congress,—the means are unlimited. The channels for presenting the results of investigation are the village or the city paper, local clubs, and local history meetings. The best of all channels would seem to be the teachers' meeting, not as it now often exists, but reorganized and vitalized. The teachers' meeting is too often but a medium for discussing the dry husks of teaching,—Should pupils rise or sit when reciting? Should they use pen or pencil for writing? How can whispering be stopped? Ought dates to be memorized? All this means that the external school machinery is turned round and round, but has behind it no

motive power that makes for progress. Nor is the other type of teachers' meeting more profitable where, for example, the hour or more is spent discussing Hegel's "Philosophy of History" by teachers who presumably are but vaguely acquainted with either Hegel, philosophy, or history. The price paid for teachers' meetings representing either extreme seems a heavy one and far from commensurate with the results secured. But the teachers' meetings that should be the channel for presenting the results of some special study made, some genuine discovery, however small, some new point of view with reference to familiar facts, this might mean a teachers' meeting to be anticipated with interest rather than awaited with dread.

If then the teacher shares in the slow progress of society towards the goal where mutual aid is the compelling force; if it lies in his power to wrest from inert public opinion an appreciation of the importance, even the necessity, of research and production on the part of the teaching body if that body is to preserve and to increase its vitality; if untilled fields and the means of cultivating them are at hand; if channels of communication with the world at large are all open; if the voyages of explanation and discovery carried on at an earlier day that resulted in opening up a new material world have their counterpart to-day in the investigations into the unseen, unknown world that lies all about us; if the teacher in his dual character of investigator and teacher makes that unknown world his by right of eminent domain, then indeed with the attainment of these possibilities will the educational world turn its face Westward.

How Modern shall we make our Modern History?*

BY DAVID SAVILLE MUZZEY, ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

It is not a question of dates that I wish to discuss under the above title. Whether we bring our history down to the year 1870 or up to the year 1905 makes little difference to our boys and girls in the high school. It is sometimes difficult for us teachers to realize, when we remember so distinctly the excitement of the early spring days of 1898, and perhaps went about ourselves decorated with buttons exhorting our fellow-strapangers to remember the Maine, or when we recall our discussions as to whether or not General Buller would eat his Christmas pudding of 1899 in Ladysmith, that for our high school pupils the Spanish and Boer wars are as remote as the Civil War and the Crimean war. We may as well at the start abandon all ideas of bringing our history within the memory of our pupils. They have no historical memories.

And still we are becoming more and more dissatisfied with the complacent assumption of our fathers that Gibbon and Grote, diluted to a potency of one-tenth or one-twentieth, is just the kind of history that pupils need. I have often reflected, in a moment of skepticism as to the value of the thing I was myself teaching, on the staunchly unintermittent faith of my old teacher in ancient history, who was apparently as jealous for the laurels of Miltiades as Themistocles was of them. But for us boys (and I imagine that it is the same for most of the boys of to-day) the petty rivalries of old Greeks failed to stir either enthusiasms or resentments. If we said that Miltiades was the leader of the Persians, it was not from any desire to pain the teacher. We were perfectly willing to let Miltiades be an Athenian. He didn't sound exactly like Mardonius, to be sure—but they both began with M.

So long as the teachers preserved their faith unshaken

that it was indispensable to a student's training to know (at least till the end of the term) the abbreviated and jejune details of military, constitutional, and diplomatic history furnished by the average text-book, there was no agitation for reform. For our students, with a lamb-like trust in the infallibility of the teacher reinforced by the printed page, would make an attempt, however pitiable, of learning anything. But thanks to a vivifying breath that is blowing through our whole curriculum in this age, we teachers are getting pretty well convinced that there is no historical fact of the past worth knowing for its demand on memory alone. The memory must demand the fact, not the fact the memory. The memory, indeed, is a highly selective function. The psychology of memory, which is at the same time the pedagogy of memory, has been most illuminatingly stated by Henri Bergson in "Matter and Memory" (Chaps. I and II) and in "Creative Evolution" (Chap. I). He says, in the latter work: "Memory is not a faculty of putting away recollections in a drawer or of inscribing them in a register. There is no register, no drawer. There is not even, properly speaking, a faculty of memory. For a faculty works intermittently when it will or when it can, while the piling up of the past upon the past goes on without relaxation. In reality, the past is preserved by itself automatically. In its entirety probably it follows on at every instant. All that we have felt, thought, and willed from our earliest infancy is there, leaning over the present which is about to join it, pressing against the portals of consciousness that would fain leave it outside. The cerebral mechanism is arranged just so as to drive back into the realm of the unconscious almost the whole of this past, and to admit beyond the threshold of consciousness *only that which can cast light on the present situation or further the action now being prepared*—in short, only that which can do useful work. At

* Address before the New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, Normal College, New York City, Dec. 16, 1911.

the most a few superfluous recollections may succeed in smuggling themselves through the half-open door. These memories, messengers from the unconscious, remind us of what we are dragging behind us unawares."

The foregoing paragraph is very suggestive for the teacher of history. What a striking analogy between that subconscious mass of memory that we are "dragging behind us unawares," and the mass of irrelevant historical facts that we are dragging behind us with painful awareness. Do we not stagger often in spirit under what Wordsworth's laborious line calls "the weight of all this weary unintelligible world," and wish to be quit of it? Shouldn't we, if we dared to be quite honest, often throw off the whole Pilgrim's pack of archons and ephors, Sabellians and Sammites, manorial courts leet and baron, princely genealogies and territorial barterings, and stretch our cramped minds in a huge "Ouf!" of relief—a sort of mental *seisachtheia*? And are we not pretty sure that our obedient students, when the pressure of quiz and examination is removed, actually do throw these things off forthwith, their memory very successfully "driving them back into the realm of the unconscious"? Our history, then, to be effective, must furnish as far as possible what the memory of a live, alert mind of the twentieth century is likely to demand. One fact of the past is better worth preserving than another, not because Thucydides or Polybius or Gibbon or Hallam thought so, but only because it enters somehow constructively into the conscious purpose of the present.

Now because human history is a continuum, it is obvious that the law will be generally correct that the nearer to us an event is in time the more important it is to know about it. Many and many an extremely important movement in the past has had its day and ceased to be, has either done its work finally or run itself out in useless sands. Many a movement of the present also will prove in the light of history to be futile or only dimly significant. But we are in the present, for better or for worse, and are bound to be absorbed in our present problems as if they were of the utmost significance. One could not argue for the greater importance of the study of the modern period of history on the ground that its facts are more significant in the eyes of some possible transcendent *Weltgeist* or *Ueberweltgeist* than the facts of the Hundred Years' War, but only on the ground that we are living in the situation created directly by the events of the most modern history and only remotely by the events of the Hundred Years' War. Some facts and movements of ancient Greece, more of ancient Rome, many of medieval Europe, carry over into our civilization of to-day. But, alas! we too seldom apply to the history of these old countries the touchstone of contemporaneous inquiry. Great literary, philosophical, and theological authorities have hallowed many a sterile field of historical research until it has become almost sacrilege to question the use of turning and returning its slaked glebe. Socrates and Pheidias are the most important men for us in that golden fifth century of Attic culture, yet Thucydides is not concerned with either of them.

The qualms of conscience that we modern teachers of history have in sending high school boys and girls out into the life of the twentieth century with an intimate acquaintance with Cincinnatus and no knowledge of the name of Cavour, are easily explained. So long as education was the aristocratic or semi-aristocratic privilege of a few favored people in the community, and the school was a cloistered sanctuary, the traditions of Roman virtues and medieval knighthood flourished. But the great fact at the bottom of our revolt against the doctrine of the sufficiency of the classic or hallowed traditions of history is, in a single word, democracy. We are now undertaking to educate tens and hundreds of thousands of boys and girls, in the midst of the hustle and bustle of our restless environment. We are realizing, every

decade that passes, that we have a different material to work with and on in our pupils, and that, in consequence, the matter and the method of our teaching must be different. Whether we deplore or welcome the fact, the fact remains that our students come to us from a vastly different *milieu* and go out from us into a vastly different *milieu* than that of their fathers, or even of their elder brothers. It is getting to be a trite phrase, repeated *ad nauseam*, that school is not a preparation for life but a part of life itself. But perhaps we do not yet quite sufficiently realize the significance of the democratic movement which has forced this truth on the attention of our pedagogues. The wider the extension of our education, the graver our responsibility for its effectiveness; the more social its character, the more articulated and logical must be its method. This I believe is the philosophy of education at the bottom of our present-day misgivings in our reflection on our curriculum—the ultimate inspiration of such phrases as, We cannot send the boys from our high schools without some introduction to modern social and economic problems, or, We have only two or three years for historical instruction and we must make those years count, or, Our history must be made vivid and up to date. Coöperation is the watchword of our era. It is a misfortune if any of our instruction diverts the pupil from the path he is so soon to find and follow in the world. It is a wicked waste of energy if the transition from school to society is at the same time a translation from an artificial to a real environment. And it is a disillusionment fatal to any further interest in history if the student is allowed to feel that a pedagogical pressure which forced his mind into moulds arbitrarily fashioned by a generation long dead has been suddenly lifted, releasing the mind for attention to the real questions of life.

How insidious this error is we are reminded by reading any chapter in the history of education. Increasing complexity of human action has always and ever been outstripping historical framework. The schemes and methods of interpreting the past life of humanity have lagged far behind the throbbing interests of the actual life of humanity.

To illustrate by the single instance of the admission of new classes of society to parts in the historic drama. The annals of republican Rome were for centuries simply the picturesque accounts of the exploits of great families or the *fasti* of the pontiffs. The medieval chronicle preserved the form of the monastic diary long after the yeoman and the peasant appeared as influential actors on the European stage. Our present-day historiography is still bound largely by the language, the conventions, the selection and ordering of material—in short by the total point of view of the centuries of state building, when shifting alliances, diplomatic finesse, transfers of provinces, balance of power, family compacts, court intrigues, dynastic wars were the vital problems, and such questions as world peace, the labor problem, popular government, universal education, responsibility towards nations of undeveloped constitutions and markets had scarcely dawned on horizon of the leaders of thought. We are in a full tide of economic and democratic interests to-day, but our history is still written largely from the political and aristocratic standpoint. The mind of the age is growing increasingly international, while our histories are still conceived in the national-exclusive spirit. The treatment of such an event, for example, as the separation of the American colonies from England should no longer be, as it was in our childhood days, an indiscriminating glorification of the patriot cause, or, as it often is to-day, a laborious balancing of the legal and constitutional rights of the British parliament and the colonial assemblies. Our actual progress in internationalism has transcended these interpretations. The American Revolution should be studied and taught as a chapter in the long and laborious struggle for the enlargement of the basis on which government rests, as an event as sig-

nificant in England's development as in America's, a resistance to the ghost of Stuart despotism that stalked in the corpulent body of George the Third.

The world about us is throbbing with the shock of ideas, with insistent effort to discover the trend of past struggles and with earnest fore-reaching towards a form of society which shall better express the general goodwill of men. What authorities are waxing, and what are waning? Which paths in history have led to the highway of progress, and which have run into the blind alleys of despotism or the dreary and stagnant sloughs of national decay? All our history teaching should be a running commentary on the origin and growth of the civilization in the midst of which we find our lot cast. Obedience to this principle will make the story of ancient Athens modern history—disobedience to it will make the treatment of Grover Cleveland's administrations ancient history.

I believe that we must revise a very old and consecrated shibboleth of history before we can make our history teaching modern. That shibboleth is the dictum that we must get completely out of our own life into the life of the past, in order to understand history. Now it seems to me that those who get farthest out of the present and most exclusively into the life of the past are the most liable to miss the meaning of the past for the present—which after all is the value of history. I have the gravest doubt of the usefulness of that kind of historical vividness which is gained by resolving the class into a session of the Roman Senate or the sitting of a manorial court. Willie Jones may enjoy presiding over the deliberations of the conscript gamins, but the chances are that his procedure will be inspired more by his experience in the juvenile debating club than by any appreciation of the mind of a Roman noble. A recent number of *Punch* characterized a certain book on the French Revolution as "valuable for those who recalled the facts." The test might well be applied to many a page of our history text-books. We are not called upon, and never shall be called upon, to live in the ancient or the medieval world, and why pretend that we are? All that we want of the past is light on the present and guidance for the future. Imagine a scientist in any field trying to teach a class to live like Roger Bacon or Anaximander—even if anyone knew how Anaximander lived! There is danger here that my position may be misunderstood. I am not contending that it is not necessary to know the past. Indeed, the future is safe only in the hands of those who have learned wisdom from the past. Only just what we must *not* do is to "get into the life of the past." We need all the life we have and a good deal more, for the present.

Instead, then, of taking our point of departure in the past and recounting the story of the past for its own sake, happy at rare moments if an event or situation gives us the opportunity for a brief excursus into matters of current interest, we must take our stand in the confused and discordant life of our own generation, and go back into history for the story of how and when and where these great problems of ours have arisen, what vicissitudes have attended their agitation in the civilizations of the past, what less complete solutions than those which are demanded have satisfied or perforce quieted our forefathers.

We are undertaking to educate the many. Everything in our turbulent age is pointing to the truth that new standards, political, economic, religious, are imperatively demanded for the social health. We are more or less conscious of the duty which history—like every other discipline—has toward this reconstruction of standards; but we are as yet groping for the method. Cicero's complacent summary of historical responsibility: *praetermissa repetimus, incohata persequimur* is ridiculously inadequate. Repetition of past events is in itself no more valuable than repetition of Chinese numerals. When we say that a truth is valuable in history,

it must be with the *arrière pensée* that the scientist has in calling a truth of the past valuable—namely, the certainty or the hope that it is serviceable for some contribution to the understanding of the present. Why not, then, take the direct method of the scientist in searching the past for the light which it can throw on the present? Why not be as fearlessly selective in turning over the mass of historical material as every man who knows what he is looking for is in turning over the mass of his private papers? There is a large number of most important movements and problems in our day on which we need all the light that history can shed: the cessation of war, the extension of the people's part in government, the relations of Church and State, the regulation of business by law, the ethicising of the economic relations. Here are live questions with live men at work on them. They reach back far into the past, suggesting Amphictyonic leagues, Solonian legislation, Donations of Constantine, Statutes of Laborers, de Montfort's Parliaments. I take up a periodical that is moulding and reflecting public opinion to-day, and I find in every column the challenge to a far-reaching historical commentary: three prelates from America are elevated to the cardinalate, the war minister of Italy justifies his attack on Tripoli, Mrs. Pankhurst is denied a hearing at Harvard, jurors are drawn for the Ashe Building fire trial, the sale of the friars' lands in the Philippines is discussed, and Gompers sheds tears over the MacNamaras' confession. Our intelligent interest in these matters will be largely determined by our historical background, but our history must be a background, skilfully and clearly bringing out the features of the foreground.

Again, please do not misunderstand me. I am not advocating the dilettante methods of the society women's current events club, with its suggestion of hasty and serviceable encyclopædia information. The effective understanding of the great tendencies and trends of modern days goes very deep into the past. It is a discipline which may well challenge our most serious study. As soon as we get emancipated from the remnants of that old superstition which consecrated political periods, kings' reigns, dynastic wars, and the like, as things worthy of study *per se*, we shall see all history as the shadow in the past of the projection into the future of our present age.

I am fully aware of the objections that will be raised to this plan of selecting movements worth our attention to-day and tracing their genesis and their vicissitudes in history. It will be said, We may be mistaken in what we think important; a later age may discover that we have run off at a tangent or followed the will o' the wisps. True enough, but our duty is "to serve the present age" as the old Puritan hymn-writer said. And the chance is not a twentieth as great of our running off into the insignificant in pursuit of light on present problems as it is under the present plan of remaining quagmired in the traditions of the seventeenth, eighteenth centuries, or even the fourth and fifth centuries—traditions which may not, after all, have been remarkably significant even for their own age.

Again it is urged by many that the very modern age cannot be made a profitable subject of study because it is not yet fixed in history. We have not the proper perspective: the age has not taken definite shape. This view assumes that the business of history is simply to *perceive* ("*perspicere*") things from a distance; that the past is valuable because it is so petrified that it can be handled without disintegrating; that our work as historians does not begin until the whole pageant of our generation, with its generals, its scientists, its scholars, has passed away. Then we clear up the streets after it, and write up the story for the press.

But for all the gingerly caution of historians not to come so close to the present as to spoil their perspective, we find very little evidence that remoteness in time from the events chronicled lends any great probability of agreement on either

facts or interpretation of facts. There is as much controversy over Julius Caesar to-day among Roman historians as there is over Roosevelt among modern politicians. And as for the credibility of our facts in past history, there is little reason to think that they were selected or recorded with as much faithfulness and accuracy as are the facts of the present. There is scarcely an historical event recorded whose credibility has not sometime and somewhere been called in question, and it is only a comparatively recent age that has witnessed the birth of such a thing as an historical conscience.

These are theoretical objections that will be brought against the scheme of selecting for study in the past only the parentage of the things that seem to be of import for the present. There are very practical objections, too, however. We touch prejudices when we deal with current interest. Well, why not touch a few prejudices! The very thing that prejudices need to cure them of being prejudices is touching—the "king's touch" of reasonableness. We are so terribly afraid of each other, and so thin-skinned in our fear of honest criticism of our own dogmas and conceits. It would be the very best thing for the future generation to teach our children not to grow up with and amid a lot of prejudices on which they are bound to keep a discreet silence forever. I like the sturdy confidence of Martin Luther and John Milton in the power of right to conquer when opinions fight it out in a free field. There is a greater danger than we realize in the detachment recommended by the purely objective or "disinterested" school of historians. "The only truly

disinterested," said Michelet, "are the dead." And unless we can stir in our students some interests (whose exaggerations and perversions make prejudices) we may as well leave them alone.

I heard the other day the perfect example of detached historical disinterestedness. A colleague of mine was trying to bring to the realization of a class of settlement boys the awful character of Nero. He told them about the wicked emperor who poisoned his courtiers, kicked his wife, and killed his mother, and longed to sever the heads of all his subjects with a single stroke of the axe. Then turning to Mike to get the reaction, he asked, "Well, Mike, what do you think of this man Nero?" Mike roused himself sufficiently to draw out: "Huh! he never done nothing to me."

A final and very practical objection to teaching the most modern period of history is the difficulty of finding text-books which give adequate attention to the latest years. But this is, after all, only saying that we lack as yet proper tools for a work we consider indispensable. We must not be content to abandon the work for the lack of tools. In other words, we must teach the modern period and teach from the modern period, with or without text-books. The persistent demand will eventually bring the adequate book. There has been an immense improvement in the last generation in the modernity of our history text-books, and we may look forward with confidence to the not very distant time when our text-books shall make every field of history "modern."

The New Age

BY PROFESSOR HENRY LEWIN CANNON, LELAND STANFORD, JR. UNIVERSITY.

Of all the achievements of the first decade of the twentieth century nothing more impresses the student of history than the progress made by men in the art of living together. If the civilizations of other ages are to be variously classed as potamic, thalassic, and oceanic, we may fairly term that of this new age into which we are now entering the ecumenic, the world-wide, the universal. Thanks to the inventions of the nineteenth century which have so facilitated intercommunication, the restraints imposed by seas and mountains are being removed, and men are coming to realize that by a course of rapid readjustment the separate commonweal of each previously separated group is becoming merged into one great commonweal of all mankind.

Little did the philosopher Fichte realize how soon and how effectively we should be advancing on our march of progress when, a century ago he formulated the statement: "It is the vocation of our race to unite itself into one single body, all the parts of which shall be thoroughly known to each other, and all possessed of similar culture. The great world-demos is employing many agencies in this work. Each phase of common-life, political, educational, social, religious, industrial and commercial, is represented in the movement; for it is far-reaching, fundamental. But they are all working to a common end, that of the unification of the human race."

First in public attention is perhaps the political need of a better understanding among the nations and the brilliant progress made in this line has been perhaps most striking in such achievements as the establishment of the institutions that center about the Temple of Peace at the Hague and the Monroe Palace at Washington, and are also exemplified in the hundred and two permanent treaties of arbitration signed in the one decade between 1899 and 1909.*

But governments can do other things than avoid war, and we find international conferences or commissions investigat-

ing important questions preparatory to joint international legislation; as for instance the conference of delegates from Canada, Mexico and the United States that met at Washington in 1909 to consider "the better conservation of the natural resources of the country." Governments can also work together to lessen the cost and increase the efficiency of public utilities, as in the case of the Universal Postal Union. Governments have shown they can be generous; as when, in 1908, the United States remitted to China the payment of over ten million dollars of the Boxer indemnity. Governments can also take lessons of one another, and educate their citizens in the benefits of one another's forms of civilization, as in the case of China, which in 1906 sent a large commission to America and Europe to observe whatever would be of advantage to China; and also, partially upon the basis of the Boxer indemnity, has established a fund for the education of large numbers of carefully-selected Chinese students in American institutions. Governments also use their good offices to find openings for domestic capital abroad with implied political as well as commercial advantages to the country concerned; as in the case of American intervention in the Hankau Sze-chuen Railway Loan in China, of which President Taft said in 1909: "It is gratifying that Americans will thus take their share in this extension of these great highways of trade, and to believe that such activities will give a real impetus to our commerce, and will prove a practical corollary to our historic policy in the Far East." Finally, governments, while providing primarily for their own needs build works of vast importance to mankind in general; as in the case of the Panama Canal.

Where governments do not seem to be able to effect just what is wanted, public opinion sometimes seizes upon some organ of government and puts it to a new use. Widely-separated instances of this, fraught with tremendous possibilities may be mentioned. There is the Interparliamentary Union, to which members from all national parliaments are

* In the preparation of this article the writer is specially indebted to Larned, "History for Ready Reference," Vol. VII.

eligible, out of which grew much of the force of the peace conferences at The Hague, and which by some is supposed to contain the germ of an International Parliament. There was the Conference of State Governors at Washington in 1908 summoned by the President, which was so useful as to call forth the unanimous declaration of the governors that: "We agree in the wisdom of future conferences between the President, members of Congress, and the governors of States on the conservation of our natural resources with a view of continued coöperation and action on the lines suggested." It has been said that this conference "marked an epoch in American history," and if we recall that forty States, sovereign for certain purposes, were thus informally represented by their elected chief executives, we may see in it an event of even wider significance. So, too, must we regard the conferences at London of the Prime Ministers of the self-governing colonies of the British Empire, held in 1902 and 1907. These dealt with such problems as imperial defense, preferential duties, emigration, postage, and judicial appeals, and were of sufficient value to justify plans for regular meetings of an Imperial Conference every four years.

Government organizations are so strikingly effective in advancing international harmony that it is not to be wondered at if government servants frequently appear to forget that the people of the world have any other means than themselves of producing mutual good-will and that in fact the people are quite able whenever they seriously wish it to maintain peace and friendship in spite of what their servants in the government may selfishly desire. Why is it that the smouldering trouble in the Balkans does not set Europe ablaze as often expected by diplomats; that the revolution in Persia did not rupture international peace; that affairs in Morocco after all do not produce war between France and Germany? In one of these instances, the Morocco troubles of 1905-1906, we know that it was the almost impregnable position of the French banks in regard to their gold supply and the effect of their refusal to loan it for German business requirements until peace was assured that put the requisite pressure upon diplomacy. The result somehow reminds one of what William James predicted if his prescription of "preventive medicine" be taken against war: "Armies and navies will continue, of course, and will fire the minds of populations with their potentialities of greatness. But their officers will find that somehow or other, with no deliberate intention on any one's part, each successive 'incident' has managed to evaporate and to lead nowhere, and that the thought of what might have been remains their only consolation."

The pessimistic thought that "armies and navies will continue, of course," with the implied assumption that their crushing burden will consequently still have to be borne was made in 1904 and perhaps is already out of date. In his speech before the British Imperial Press Conference in 1909, Lord Rosebery hinted that if something is not done, presumably by the governments themselves, to lessen the tremendous sacrifices now being required to support armies and navies which threaten eventually "nearly to bring back Europe into a state of barbarism," it might "cause a catastrophe in which the working men of the world will say, 'We will have no more of this madness, this foolery which is grinding us to powder.'" Perhaps he had in mind the utterances made at the Twentieth International Congress of Miners held in Berlin only the month before, where strong resolutions were moved for disarmament, and a Belgian delegate declared: "If it were better organized, the International Federation of Miners could by itself render wars impossible. They need not do anything violent or illegal; they had only to remain quiet, so very quiet that war could not be carried on." That the working man generally feels thus we know from the statement of President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor at the Peace Congress, held at New

York in 1907, where he said: "I know of no gathering of labor in the last twenty-five years which has not declared itself unequivocally for international brotherhood and peace."

Of movements whose chief aim is peace, we need allude only to those fostered by the many peace societies and by the Nobel, Ginn, and Carnegie peace funds. Within the last decade the world has come to recognize that disarmament must be accomplished. National ideals are now those of peace. Can we doubt it? In France, where military glory has always been highly regarded, a Paris newspaper in 1907 held a voting contest in which millions of ballots were cast as to who was the greatest Frenchman of the nineteenth century. Did Napoleon Bonaparte receive the majority? By no means. Pasteur, the man of science, came first; second, Victor Hugo, the apostle of the wretched; third, Gambetta; and, fourth, Napoleon. As it is an axiom that all governments however despotic must rest ultimately upon the will of the people, it follows that the world has only to become sufficiently in earnest in the matter and disarmament will inevitably result. How or when it will be brought about the future will disclose.

If less space be offered in this article to the phases other than political in which humanity is becoming unified, it should not be inferred that they are of less importance. On the contrary, the other ties are the very ones that are drawing nations together where in many cases political motives would tend to their separation. These are of the highest importance to the general movement.

Pure scholarship is international. Scientific discoveries become common property almost immediately. Scientific works are universally read regardless of place of origin and almost regardless of the language in which they are written. Students flock to the centers of learning that are best for their respective needs. Even educational methods are widely copied. All this has in a measure always been so, but here again the last decade made some noteworthy advances. To state a number of illustrations in one breath we may instance the Chinese student invasion of Japan; the international exchanges of professors; the visit of five hundred English, Scotch, and Irish teachers to America in 1906-1907, and the return visit of hundreds of American teachers in 1908; the Rhodes Scholarships; and the movement started in England in 1909 for the interchange of students between the United Kingdom, Canada, and the United States, "to obtain some real insight into the life, customs, and progress of other nations at a time when their own opinions are forming."

Even the numerous international meetings of scientific societies have become still more numerous within the last decade. Professor Langlois, writing in 1904 in his "Manuel de Bibliographie Historique" upon "International Organizations," after noting the marked tendency at the close of the nineteenth century for scholars of different countries to collaborate in common enterprises; also the great number of learned periodicals that print articles from all sources without translation into the language of the country where they appear; remarks upon the regularity of meeting of international congresses of geology, agriculture, zoology, hygiene, medical sciences, experimental psychology and many other sciences. "Moreover, international congresses of all sorts have become, as we know, a regular feature of the great universal expositions."

Another class of international organizations is that of those having some social aim in view. The Red Cross Societies are, it is true, organized along national lines, but they are connected with one another by the society at Geneva and their activities are world wide. In 1904 the American National Red Cross was incorporated and brought under direct governmental control. "Throughout all the many calamities of the past decade, from earthquakes, volcanic eruption, fire, flood, war, famine and pestilence, the Red

Cross Society has always been instant in readiness for effective humane service, from almost every civilized country of the world, and for any call to any quarter of the globe." Their titles will recall the significance of other great organizations: "The Central International Committee for the Prevention of Tuberculosis (1900)," "The International Woman Suffrage Alliance (1906)," "The International Congress of Alcoholism." At the meeting of "The International Council of Women," held at Toronto in 1909, the president, Lady Aberdeen, besides referring to other uses of the organization, stated: "Our International Council must indeed be of necessity the strongest peace society that can exist, for if the homes of the different countries of the world are brought in touch with one another and understand and believe in one another, there can be no more war."

The meeting of the World Missionary Conference at Edinburgh last June was epoch-making in the history of missions, and shows the great force of the religious movements for the betterment of mankind. But missionary societies are far from limiting their scope to religious enlightenment, being also of great international influence in social and educational lines. American missions in Turkey have failed to turn Moslems to Christianity, but in 1909 had in their educational institutions twenty-five thousand native students learning to become good citizens according to American ideals.

Under the heading of the commercial and industrial phase of this unification, it is hard to select from the numerous illustrations that offer themselves of the decade's remarkable activities. Two or three of widely different character must suffice. The international organizations like the trans-

atlantic shipping companies we now regard as a matter of course. Yet it was only in 1902 that Mr. Morgan's International Mercantile Marine Company was chartered, including "the American, the Red Star, the White Star, the Atlantic Transport, the Leyland, and the Dominion Lines." At that time this was of sufficient international importance to necessitate a special explanation by Mr. Balfour, the Prime Minister, as to the relations of the English Government with the new combination.

Man has now come even to recognize the need of international coöperation, "for systematizing the agricultural production of the world, and regulating the markets of food products." Therefore, at Rome, in 1905, an International Institute for that purpose was projected, subsequently to be established upon a firm basis.

Recognizing the value of good advertizing, nations have come to hold "world's fairs," or expositions, with increasing frequency. America alone has held half a dozen during the last ten years. That these expositions, apart from their general educative value to tourists, serve to promote the meeting of congresses of all sorts has been already suggested.

After this brief survey of the manifold ways in which mankind is so rapidly learning the art of living together in one great commonweal, we are inevitably tempted to inquire as to what is to be the outcome of all this diffusion of culture, this unification of mankind. The historian cannot answer, but the philosopher promises, again in the words of Fichte: "Then, without further interruption, without halt or regress, with united strength and equal step, humanity shall move onward to a higher culture, of which we can at present form no conception."

History in the Elementary Schools

Shall the Course of Study Recommended by the Committee of Eight Be Adopted in the Elementary Schools?*

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Since the vast majority of children never pass beyond the eight grades of the elementary school, it seems unnecessary to waste any time in emphasizing the importance of our subject. In criticising a proposed new course of any study in any subject, it is necessary to have in mind four points: (1) the interests and capacities of the children of the several grades; (2) the social and individual needs of the child; (3) the requirements of the subject matter; (4) the practicability of getting the course adopted by school authorities and efficiently carried out under existing school conditions. In the present case, criticism of the Report of the Committee of Eight must be very different in character from what it would be if the Report had not yet been adopted and published. Just now we are not so much concerned with detailed constructive criticism as with exact proposals for additions, subtractions, and re-arrangements. What we are seeking as a basis for the discussion is simply a fair appraisal, measured by the four standards just enumerated.

It is simply stating a fact to say that there have been expressions of disappointment regarding the work of the Committee of Eight from many competent judges. Much of this criticism, however, has been directed to other features of the report than the course of study. The introduction is somewhat rambling and uninspiring; the discussion of the training of teachers, which contains much that is excellent and well-stated, will hardly be considered adequate or well-organized; the treatment of foreign practice is somewhat brief, and its accuracy has been in some respects questioned; there is a lack of proper discrimination and

classification in supplying references; the "bibliography" is an astonishing production for a committee of this Association; and the printed book shows defects in such matters as proof-reading, running-heads, typographical ingenuity, condensed outlines by grades, etc. In general, the complete report lacks the incisiveness and masterful touch which characterized the Report of the Committee of Seven; there are perhaps good reasons for this difference, yet it is naturally noticed and criticised. Certainly the Report should not be used as a manual for teachers until it has been carefully revised. It must be remembered, however, that our present question is whether the *course of study* should be followed, and none of the deficiencies just mentioned directly impairs the merits of that course.

As you are doubtless already familiar with the Report, no analysis will be necessary for our present purpose, except to point out that the material of the course may readily be grouped into three units: (1) Primary work, for grades one to three, devoted to anniversaries, Indian life, and sixteen "heroes of other times"; (2) Intermediate work, grades four and five, devoted to "historical scenes and persons in American history"; (3) Grammar-grade work, grades six to eight, devoted to American history preceded by "those features of ancient and medieval life which explain important elements of our civilization, or which show how the movement for discovery and colonization originated," and accompanied by some attention to contemporary Europe. The Committee was very much alert to the danger of anything "ideal" or "visionary" (pp. xiv and xv), a most laudable precaution, which can nevertheless be carried

* Address at the Buffalo Meeting of the American Historical Association.

so far as to result in a mediocre product. To many it has seemed that the Committee went too far in this respect, and that it should have been more impressed with the necessity of setting standards somewhat in advance of "the demands of the hour" (p. x). In fact, the one feature of the course which, considered by itself, can be called radical, is the material outlined for the sixth grade. On the other hand, those of us who have been long and keenly interested in the subject of history must remember that "radical" and "conservative" are here relative terms, their degree depending upon the basis of comparison. While some of us are criticising the Report as too conservative, there are school superintendents who are criticising it as too heavy for adoption under existing conditions.

We can best appraise the Committee's work by considering the three units in inverse order. The plan of focusing the course around American history is fundamentally sound. Many of the aims of history teaching can be realized from almost any phase or period of the subject; but the great central aim of our history teaching is now recognized as social, the developing of an understanding of the organized society of which the pupil is a part, and the ability and disposition to perform intelligently and honestly his duties as a citizen. For this reason the history work of pupils of every country should culminate in the history of their own nation. But the conception of national history must never be narrow, lest it result in the fostering of the provincial narrowness and vicious chauvinism which have been all too common in our own country. This principle applies with special force to American History, since its institutions in their origin are European, and the roots of our civilization are in other lands. The Committee has explicitly recognized the necessity for making American history the crowning feature of the work, and for using that term in a very broad and liberal sense. While reserving the right to differ on points of detail, we may say, therefore, that this feature of the Committee's work is deserving of very high praise.

The material prescribed for the intermediate grades cannot be so readily approved. In devoting the entire fourth and fifth years to stories from American history, the Committee flagrantly violates its own principle, repeated and emphasized (pp. xiii and 125) that each topic should be presented but once, "fully and finally." Without subscribing fully to this principle, one may easily disagree as to the advisability of devoting these two years to American history. Children of this age may be keenly interested in Greek, Roman, and medieval stories that give some conception of these civilizations and make familiar some of the great names in their history. These subjects might well lead up to a simple view of the more romantic aspects of the period of discovery and colonization in America. Time might thus be gained in the sixth grade for a more detailed and intensive study of Europe during the period of exploration and discovery in America, and thereby bring the entire colonial period within the sixth grade, giving time for more extended study to the later periods of American history and to important European topics. This sort of work has been successfully tested in various schools. Good examples of the possibilities may be found in the courses of the Ethical Culture School, of New York, of the Speyer School, of Teachers College, Columbia University, and of Baltimore County, Maryland. The course for grades five to eight in Baltimore county, outlined by the grammar grade supervisor, Miss Lida Lee Tall, is very suggestive of what can be done. The plan provides in the fifth grade a series of biographical subjects around which centre studies of typical civilizations from ancient times to the colonial period of America. This is followed in the sixth grade by a fuller study of certain European topics, followed by the colonial period of American history. This plan not only leaves time for more in-

tensive study in the seventh and eighth grades, but anticipates the point so well made in the recent Report of the Committee of Five in favor of treating American colonial history from the viewpoint of European expansion. The test of experience has shown that this work is practicable, and that when properly presented will yield excellent results.

The work of the primary grades is not history, as the Committee very properly points out, but only a foundation for history. It is very important, however, that this foundation should be laid, and laid well. The program presented by the Committee is sound as far as it goes, but is somewhat meagre. There should have been suggestions for more material on primitive life, including such topics as the cave dwellers and pastoral life; there should be suggestions for the use of myths, legends, and such literary material as Robinson Crusoe with reference to the future study of history; and in the third grade there should be a simple study of local community life. The little children of these grades would thus have an opportunity to become familiar with the idea of social development in a simple stage, and to gain some conception of institutional ideas in their cruder forms.

The course recommended by the Committee has so far been criticised on the basis of the first three of our standards, but the practical point of view represented by the fourth must also be fully considered. Upon approaching the subject from this side we shall then find that the following factors must be regarded in attempting to solve the problem; (1) The vast majority of elementary teachers must give instruction in nearly all the subjects of the curriculum, and in rural schools to four, five, or possibly eight grades in one room; few of the teachers have been specially trained or have in any sense made a special study of history; many have not even had general professional training. (2) Only in exceptional cases are supervisory officials equipped to give expert assistance in the history work. (3) Large numbers of pupils leave school every year, notwithstanding our compulsory laws; the figures regarding this elimination differ materially, but it is conservative to say that only one-third of those entering survive for the high school, and only one-tenth complete its work. Mr. Leonard Ayres, who has made wide investigations in this field, states that the general tendency is toward keeping nearly all the pupils to the end of the fifth year, and one-half to the end of the eighth. (4) It is much easier to make lists of books, maps, and pictures that are useful or necessary than to get Boards of Education to buy them. (5) The best course of study is worthless unless superintendents who are not especially interested in history will recommend it, and in many cases unless school boards who are neither educators or students of history, will adopt it. (6) There is no such thing as a standard course of study for elementary schools, either in theory or in practice, not even an arbitrary one, such as the college entrance requirements for the high school.

The Committee may easily and properly have been influenced by all these factors in the case. In regard to the intermediate work, for example, they may have felt that it is of great importance for the children leaving school at the end of the fifth or sixth grade to have made at least a slight study of the history of their own country. Whether they believed this or not, they may have realized that a large number of superintendents would entertain such an opinion. They may have felt that a course superior from an educational point of view would present too many and too great difficulties for the main body of teachers as they are. They may have felt that it would be hopeless to expect superintendents and boards of education to adopt a course which on the whole represented too wide a departure from the common. Some of us may disagree with them on these points, we may feel that they have been too conservative, but at

least we can understand their problem and respect their deliberately formed judgment. They have some justification, at least, in the fact that several superintendents, including some of those in our larger cities, have already expressed doubt of the practicability of introducing so "heavy" a course.

Admitting, then, all that may legitimately or reasonably be said against the Committee's course, there would still be no sufficient reason for withholding our indorsement. If the Committee's work was so palpably bad that a very large percentage of competent judges disapproved its essential features the case would be different; but no such contention can be maintained, and if we wait for a general agreement on all the details of a course, the assistance we desire to give the elementary schools will never be rendered. Almost everybody admits that the Committee's course possesses many sterling merits. It presents for the first time in this country, a complete and co-ordinated course of study in history for the elementary schools, and is the product of four years of intelligent and presumably painstaking study by a committee of eight competent scholars and educators. There is no obligation upon anyone who accepts the essential ideas of the course to follow the exact selections of topics and organizations of material prescribed by the Committee. (Such is the Committee's own statement). Let these be improved upon wherever teachers and supervisors are competent to improve upon them. Let the text-book makers show the way to something better when they can. Let the special schools or school systems in which there is somebody really competent to make and carry on a special course, blaze new trails. After ten or twelve years of experience we can have a careful and thorough revision of the Report of the Committee of Eight, just as we have had of the report of the Committee of Seven. In the meantime, here is a standard for the great body of elementary schools to follow.

An examination of the present courses of study as compared with older ones, and of publishers' statistics, shows that there is a widespread desire to give the subject of history a larger and more important place in the work of the elementary school, but hitherto there has been no standard to which any advocate of reform could point. There has been an almost slavish dependence upon text-books, and publishers have necessarily confined themselves largely to the beaten paths where sales are assured. But such a Report as that of the Committee of Eight, put forth with the authority of the American Historical Association behind it, may well be urged upon the attention of school boards everywhere, and publishers can afford to put forth text-books to meet its requirements (from what I can learn a large amount of text-book material is already on the way). Shall we miss the opportunity that is presented merely because we do not agree that the Committee of Eight course is wholly satisfactory? With the utter lack of any accepted standards or uniformity of practice, with the great body of teachers untrained for this special field, with the supervisory officials unprepared to grapple with the problem, would it not be folly to neglect the opportunity to supply authoritatively what is needed? Let us by all means bend every effort to secure the wide adoption of the course and to convince superintendents that this much history work at least should be offered, and can be offered, under present conditions in the elementary schools.

The historical articles in the eleventh edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* are reviewed in a stimulating manner by Prof. George L. Burr, in the October, 1911, number of the "*American Historical Review*." The teacher of history contemplating the use of these articles—and without doubt they will be widely used by teachers and scholars,—should read this review in order to gain a scholarly judgment upon them.

Periodical Literature

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(Conducted with the co-operation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, California.)

It is interesting to find in the November and December numbers of "*The World To-day*" two articles treating respectively of "*Tammany Rule in Caesar's Time*" and "*The Collapse of the Roman Tammany*," by Dr. Guglielmo Ferrero. The reason for their appearance in this magazine may be explained by the Editor's note: "According to Dr. Ferrero the methods of the political boss of the ancient world were no different from the methods of the modern boss. . . ."

"*The Lollards in the time of Richard II*" receives fresh treatment in the "*London Quarterly Review*" for October at the hands of G. Elsie Harrison.

Teachers wishing to lead students to realize the intimate relations of geography and history might call attention to such articles as that of Cyrus C. Adams on "*Maps and Map-making*," in the January number of the "*Harper's Magazine*," and to the finely illustrated articles appearing in the "*National Geographic Magazine*," the November number of which, for example, relates to Japan, China, and Tripoli.

A contemporaneous view of the state of Russia under Paul I, in 1800, is presented in the "*Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique*," October from the Memoir of the Chevalier de Bray. It embraces a picture of the police system, the church, arts and sciences, public instruction, commerce, industry, finance, and population. The arraignment of the repressive measures of the police, inspired by the Czar, and of the policy of enforcing ignorance, extending even to university instruction, is very graphic. The University of Moscow was nearly abandoned and had not bought a book for its library since 1769.

The character of the portrayal of "*William Tindale*," by J. H. Gardiner, in the December number of the "*North American Review*," is well expressed in the opening phrases: "In this centenary of the English Bible it would be wrong if no attempt were made to draw some attention to William Tindale, the scholar, apostle and martyr, who began the translation, and who gave to the book for all time the characteristics which make it what it is."

The paper on "*The Cost of Living in the Twelfth Century*," by Professor Dana C. Munro, of the University of Wisconsin (American Philosophical Society, Vol. L, No. 201, September, 1911), after noticing the lack of detailed studies on this topic, outlines the subject by stating that the cost of living for the upper and probably for the middle classes was increasing. This was due first to the fact that the standard of living was rising; becoming more luxurious, as seen in the rapidly-changing fashions, expensive banquets and armor, and the increased use of lead and stone in building. Higher prices were also induced by the increased stock of money, arising both from the importations from the East and the coinage of hoards hitherto withheld. Instruments of credit, such as bills of exchange, were also becoming more common. The merchants and not the nobles profited by all this; and next to them the peasants of both town and country.

The new edition of the well-known work, "*The Referendum in America*," by Dr. Ellis Paxson Oberholzer is published by Charles Scribner's Sons. This edition contains an extended supplement covering the referendum, the recall, the initiative, and commission government as these have developed during the years 1900-1911.

The United States Bureau of Education has prepared an outline of "*A Course of Study for the Preparation of Rural School Teachers*," which is furnished free upon request. The course of study is interesting because of the emphasis in it upon rural interests and subjects. In the training of rural school teachers the emphasis is, in this monograph, placed upon Nature Study, Elementary Principles of Practical Agriculture, Sanitary Science and Hygiene, Domestic Economy, and Practical Problems in Elementary Chemistry and Physics. Those interested in History and Civics will regret that among the fundamental requirements neither of those studies was emphasized.

History in the Secondary Schools

The Establishment of the Roman Empire

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The Relation of the Text-book to the Recitation.

Many teachers make the mistake of accepting the dicta of the text-book as final in such matters as arrangement of material and emphasis. Although they are ready to concede that nothing can take the place of the living voice as a medium of historical instruction, in all other respects they kowtow before the text-book as the native African grovels before his fetich. They have no clear conception either of what the text-book should contain or of what purpose it should serve in the plan of instruction. If anything goes wrong it becomes a convenient scapegoat upon which to shift the responsibility. In discussing the place and function of the text-book in the German school, Dr. Jaeger points out that the tone and character of the instruction "is determined by the teacher, and follows from his grasp of the subject, his manner of presenting it and his mode of narrative"; and concludes with these significant words, "on these points the text-book should not prejudice his efforts." What he says in this connection is more or less applicable to the teaching of the American classroom. Special emphasis here should be placed on the teacher's grasp of the subject in all its ramifications, and on his manner of presenting it. In this latter particular the *text-book should not prejudice his efforts*, nor should he necessarily regard its arrangement of material or its allotment of emphasis as likely to produce the best results in the classroom. With a text-book containing the necessary information properly analyzed, logically arranged, and clearly stated, it is more or less of an advantage to an instructor to be able to rearrange this material so as to conform to his own conceptions of proportion and emphasis. He is thereby training his students to use their facts instead of resolving the class into a mere machine for reproducing the printed page.

The Relation of Augustus to his Predecessors.

The wide gulf which often separates the treatment of a given topic at the hands of the teacher and the text-book writer may be illustrated in the work which must be done by teacher and class in preparation for a proper understanding of the achievements of the reign of Augustus. No brief needs to be offered here for the work of this man who brought the Revolution to an end and inaugurated the new period of empire. In the century just passed the student has felt the dominant force of personality as in no other period of Roman history; he has analyzed for himself, or with the assistance of the instructor, the aims, the motives, and the passions which actuated these men in their struggle for mastery. He should be encouraged all along, both by comparison and by an intimate knowledge of each individual career to realize the inherent strength and weakness of these leaders. Having done this, he should grasp the fact that these men were no better and no worse than the majority of their contemporaries.

What was there lacking in these products of the closing years of the Republic? Was it power to conceive? Ability to execute? Or was it grand conceptions? What was the dominating motive in each case? Were they inspired by a lofty patriotism or by sordid considerations of self? The teacher has let a golden opportunity pass who has failed to direct the thoughts of these impressionistic boys and girls to the deeper undercurrents which shaped and moulded these lives. The end sought by the instructor may be realized perhaps by pausing for a short review of the period—possibly devoting two or three recitations to a summary of the main points in the careers of those who played the leading roles in these turbulent years. The student may tabulate the following points to serve as a groundwork for this résumé: Names, Motives, Aims, Means employed to realize aims, Results accomplished, Effect of career on progress of the Revolution. The lives of the two Gracchi, Drusus, Marius and Sulla may serve for one exercise; those of Pompey, Crassus, Caesar, Octavius and Antony for the other. (The career of Octavius would of necessity end with Actium.) In talking over these analyses with the class, emphasis could be laid especially on motives and aims, and the vital weaknesses apparent in the lives of even the greatest. The following questions based, with one exception, on quotations from

Oman's Seven Roman Statesmen, were set as an hour test for a class of advanced students:

I. Drusus: "He had come to the conclusion that *the main dangers of the Republic were the ever-growing power and insolence of the Equestrian Order*, the corporation of financiers to whom Caius Gracchus has sacrificed the state, and the discontent of the Italian allies." (pp. 104-105).

(a) How far was he justified in this view?

(b) Had Caius Gracchus sacrificed the state to the Equestrian Order? Explain.

II. Marius: "The great general was the most bungling and incompetent of politicians." (p. 97). Explain this statement by reference to the facts of his career.

III. Pompey: "He neither reigned nor wished to reign himself, but he did much to make monarchy possible for his rival and successor." (p. 288). How far is this statement true?

IV. Crassus: "The story of his career shows just how much and how little mere wealth, ambition, and industry, without genius, an inspiring personality, or an honest enthusiasm, could accomplish in Roman politics." (p. 203). Explain.

V. Cicero: "The great action of his life was destined to be cited in history as no better than a splendid failure." (Merivale *Triumvirates*, p. 85). Discuss.

When the time arrives for fixing the relation of Augustus to his predecessors, this may be done by a series of questions in which the needs of the hour are clearly presented. Augustus sought to heal the strife, to arrest the downward tendencies which were manifesting themselves on every hand, and to bring to his countrymen once more the blessings of peace and prosperity. Did his task involve anything more than reconciling the traditions of the republic with the new needs of empire, devising an effective system of administration and rounding out the frontiers of the empire and protecting it from future incursions of barbarians? Even he, cold-blooded dissembler that he was, perceived that the evil could not be remedied by these reforms, important as they undoubtedly were. We therefore find him grappling with the far more serious and difficult problem of effecting a moral and religious regeneration of his people. He realized a need which every teacher should bring vividly before his class. He perceived that in the last analysis the great and imperative call was that which J. G. Holland voices so admirably in the following lines:

"God give us men. A time like this demands
Strong minds, great hearts, true faith and ready hands;
Men whom the lust of office does not kill:
Men whom the spoils of office cannot buy:
Men who possess opinions and a will;
Men who have honor, men who will not lie;
Men who can stand before a demagogue,
And damn his treacherous flatteries without winking.
Tall men, sun-crowned, who live above the fog
In public duty and in private thinking;
For while the rabble, with their thumb-worn creeds,
Their large professions, and their little deeds,
Mingle in selfish strife,—lo! Freedom weeps,
Wrong rules the land, and waiting Justice sleeps."

What Augustus with all his wisdom, power and genius failed to accomplish was curiously enough to be effected in an entirely different manner, by a seed sown in his own time, in an out-of-the-way corner of his domain—when the gates of the Temple of Janus were closed and all mankind, from the valley of the Tigris to the Pillars of Hercules, were once more at peace. Strange commentary on his work—the birth of the Babe of Bethlehem, whose life and teachings were to work such a transformation without the prestige or authority of the imperial name. This was the leaven that was to leaven the whole mass. This is the keynote of these opening years of the Empire. Struck here it should be sounded again and again as we follow the triumphant progress of Christianity down the centuries and note its gradual transformation of Roman society.

A Series of Lessons on the History of Greater Britain

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Colonial Development the Underlying Motive in Later English History.

The later history of England is apt to become a fragmentary record unless the teacher adopts as the basic principle in his work, especially in the external history of England during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the doctrine that during this entire period England was engaged by wars and by administrative reforms in building up a great commercial empire.

To the teachers who do not already fully comprehend the vital significance of these facts we cannot too highly recommend what in our mind, is the most suggestive book on English history which has been written in several decades: Seeley's "Expansion of England." In this book, pp. 119-120, Seeley says, "Now it appears to me that English historians fail in the later periods of England because they have traced one great development to its completion and do not perceive that, if they would advance further, they must look for some new development. More or less consciously they have always before their minds the idea of constitutional liberty. This idea suffices until they reach the Revolution of 1688, perhaps even till they reach the accession of the House of Brunswick. But after this it fails them. . . . The mistake lies in selecting these [constitutional] struggles to fill the foreground of the scene." If the teacher will keep in mind that the history of the eighteenth century is dominated by the fact that in this century Greater Britain is establishing itself in opposition to Greater France the history of England will at once assume an almost perfect unity.

The Significance of the Wars of the 17th and 18th Centuries.

In the 17th century English and French settlements in America and in India proceeded side by side. Each of these nations had its own ideals in making these settlements but each of them was dominated by the desire for foreign market for its products. The New World, and the desire for commerce with the countries of the far East, reacted on European communities, altering their industrial and commercial character. Even as early as the end of the seventeenth century this rush for trade had led to commercial reprisals and to wars of considerable importance. Most of us neglect, for instance, to discuss with our classes the significance of the wars of Charles II. with the Dutch. Yet these wars, in their effect, were almost as important as the later wars with the French. By them England wrested from Holland her colonies in America and forced Holland into a secondary place in the great carrying trade of Europe.

"In passing to the reign of William and Mary," says Egerton, "Short History of British Colonial Policy," p. 114, "we are entering upon a new order of things. Hitherto the colonies had been mainly founded by settlement; in the times which will ensue they are mainly won by conquest." And again, "We are entering on a long period of war, with uneasy intervals of peace, wherein colonies are regarded primarily as pieces in the war game and to be dealt with accordingly." "Commerce is now the clue to everything alike," says Seeley. "Growth of British Policy," pp. 338-339, "at once to the changes in our foreign relations and to the development of our insular relations. The commercial classes clamored for war, demanding in the interest of trade that the House of Bourbon should not be allowed to swallow up the Spanish monarchy with its boundless colonies."

Between the Revolution of 1688 and the battle of Waterloo, England waged seven great wars. Out of 126 years the nation was at peace less than half of the time. The debt of the nation rose by the millions, the standing army became a fixed institution and the navy assumed the place in the life of the nation which it has held ever since. This constant struggle for commercial supremacy should also be used as the key to the explanation of the union with Scotland, the establishment of the Bank, the story of the South Sea Bubble, and other similar phenomena.

Type Lessons in this Period.

In handling this period the teacher will do well, of course, to concentrate his attention upon two or three of the great wars rather than attempting to cover all of them. At most he will want to discuss the War of the Spanish Succession, the Seven Years War, the American Revolution, and the Wars with Na-

oleon. Yet in dealing with each of these he must not forget to indicate to the class that other similar wars were fought in the intervals and that in all of these wars the underlying motive was exactly similar. Too easily is the teacher led by the class into a discussion of the details of the battle of Malplaquet, of Quebec, and of Waterloo; too easily is he drawn into discourses on the glorious careers of Marlborough and Wolfe and Wellington. For generations the world has been so accustomed to "trumpet and drum" history that it is difficult for even the most conscientious of teachers to adopt the larger attitude.

Starting with the War of the Spanish Succession we must emphasize constantly the fact that the absorption of the Spanish monarchy by the House of Bourbon did not mean to England merely the absorption of certain additional European territories by France. That would have made but little difference to England. It meant that France by the union of the two crowns would become mistress of the greatest colonial and commercial system in the world. It was against this that the English merchants were eager and ready to lend support in war. Properly considered, as far as the English were concerned at least, the War of the Spanish Succession was a great *trade war* not a war against a European dynasty, a war for colonial empire, not a war for balance of power in Europe. As to the result of the war, that may be summed up in the words of Mahan, "Influence of Sea Power," etc., p. 225. "Before that war England was one of the sea powers. After it, she was *the* sea power, without a second."

Between the War of the Spanish Succession and the Seven Years' War, France and England were moving their men upon a chess board as large as the whole world; each one striving to attain the advantage of position. In America, in the Mediterranean, in India, the game was played; twice, in the war of Jenkins' Ear, and in the war of the Austrian Succession, the two nations came into conflict, but in neither conflict was the contest decisive. Then came the final trial of strength, the Seven Years' War, waged in America and in India. In this case neither the teacher nor the class needs to be cautioned to search for the commercial motive. It is so patent and so all-important that even the tyro cannot fail to observe it, but for this very reason the skillful teacher will use this war as a type lesson to emphasize the fact that the underlying motive in all these wars is the struggle for commercial supremacy.

American Revolution a Part of the Story of the British Empire.

When the story of the Seven Years' War is finished, the class will proceed at once to the study of the American Revolution. All too long have we been accustomed to emphasize, in developing the history of this struggle with our classes, the difference of opinion between the colonies and the Mother Country on the subject of taxation. May we not plead that once at least the teacher try the experiment of presenting the subject as a sub-topic in the history of the development of the British trade policy. This will necessitate first of all a study of the British colonial policy of the seventeenth and eighteenth century which the teacher will find ably expounded in such books as Egerton's "Origin and Growth of the English Colonies," in Beer's "British Colonial Policy," and in the work of Seeley already mentioned. In essence this policy was as follows:

1. Goods could only be imported or exported into or from a colony in ships belonging to the Mother Country, or to the colony.
2. Export trade of a colony was largely confined to the markets of the Mother Country.
3. Goods of the Mother Country monopolized the colonial markets.
4. Colonial goods, on the other hand had the preference in the markets of the Mother Country.
5. Competing manufacturers were prohibited in the colonies.

This policy is the rock upon which English colonial enterprise in America south of the St. Lawrence foundered. The end of the American Revolution serves therefore as an excellent point of departure for studying the new British colonial enterprises, the enterprises which in the nineteenth century led to an empire which extends from Australasia on the east to Canada on the west,

from Cape Colony to Labrador. "It is because after considerable hesitation and heartburnings, Great Britain finally discovered a more excellent way in the treatment of colonies that a wide gulf is fixed between the old history and the new." Egerton, "Origin and Growth," p. 15.

The Napoleonic Wars.

Finally there is the history of the Napoleonic wars to be considered. How few teachers have ever found in this period any adequate reason why England entered into these wars which outwardly, at least, were mere wars of continental conquest. Yet, rightly considered, these Napoleonic Wars were merely a continuance of the struggle which began in the time of William III and Louis XIV. Napoleon from first to last never relinquished his dreams of a world empire. India and America alike were in his mind while he waged war in Europe. Two facts alone make this clear—(1) the expedition to Egypt, and (2) the acquisition of Louisiana from Spain. In these wars, in reality, England was merely defending its colonial empire—from this point of view the victories of Nelson stand out as more important than those of Wellington and the teacher should not fail to show his classes that this is so.

Since the defeat of Napoleon the British Empire has never been seriously threatened. Since then England has been accepted as the one great maritime nation. Since then, too, England or rather Great Britain has grown as a peaceful trade empire—wars there have been, usually wars of defense, but none of them serious enough to threaten the steady onward march of the Anglo-Saxon tradesman.

Bibliography.

The teacher who would handle this subject successfully must know the works of at least three men:

1. Seeley—"Growth of British Policy."
"Expansion of England."
2. Egerton—"Origin and Growth of British Colonies."
"Short History of British Colonial Policy."
3. Beer—"Origin of British Colonial Policy, 1578-1660."
"British Colonial Policy," 1754-1765.

A WEAK SPOT IN HISTORY TEACHING

By Rayner W. Kelsey, Ph.D., Haverford College, Penna.

Possibly too great emphasis is sometimes laid upon the difference between high school and college history study. Secondary teachers have not been slow to find out and adopt modern methods of history teaching. College instructors can only lead students on a little farther in the same or similar paths. To be sure there is a difference, but it is more of degree than of kind, and it is not wrought suddenly by some magic wand the moment a Freshman steps within college halls. An observation then, pertinent to both secondary and college history teaching, may not be incongruous.

There is an appalling lack of definiteness in the knowledge of most students of history in high school, in college, and in after life. An upper-course instructor recently said that students came up to his course with a commendable knowledge of source materials, secondary authorities, the critical attitude, bibliography, map work, etc. "But," he added, "if they only knew a little plain history along with it I should be the better pleased."

In getting away from the close adherence to a text-book, in the encouragement of extended, diversified reading, there has perhaps been some corresponding loss. The change of methods has been good, but perhaps the loss in definiteness of knowledge need not be so great.

Students of political history know that in a sudden revolution it is easy for men's minds to pass from the thesis that new things are desirable to the conclusion that all old things are bad. Perhaps a similar mistake has been made, all unconsciously, in the revolution in history teaching. The old routine of memorization and text-book concentration was not wholly bad. It was merely carried to an extreme.

It is seldom that one attends a conference of history teachers without hearing the complaint from teachers or professors of higher courses that students come up to them with indefinite or inaccurate knowledge of the fields of history already covered.

A well-know history professor has said that every time a man

hurries through the morning paper he trains his mind in the fine art of forgetting. Perhaps this is the trouble in the modern method of history teaching. Wide reading means selective memorization. Everything cannot be remembered. Perhaps the student's mind becomes trained to forget too much. Or perhaps his selection lacks definiteness and organization. Especially vicious it would seem, is the system by which the student is required in each lesson or examination to recall only the knowledge gained in the period of preparation just preceding. Unless some definite knowledge of the progress of the course from the beginning is constantly required, the student is encouraged in the fatal policy of "remembering not the former things."

The writer believes that the modern methods of history study are immeasurably better than the old. The use of source materials, the wide reading of secondary authorities, the emphasis on the historical attitude of mind, the increased use of mechanical aids,—these are of untold value. The question raised is: Can all of this be done and time still be left for the student to get and hold a definite, well-organized knowledge of the progress of events?

It is the opinion of the writer that it not only can be done, but that by requiring a definite outline knowledge of the chief facts of history a frame-work is established in the student's mind which helps him to organize and retain much more collateral knowledge than would be otherwise possible. The value of extended reading is thus greatly increased.

In a Freshman course in Haverford College we begin to introduce the students gradually to all the modern methods of college history study. But among other things they are required from the first to remember definitely (mechanically, if you please) an outline of the essential landmarks of the period covered, with some exact dates. They are held for these facts in every conference and quiz, from the beginning of the course to the close of the year. The result is that at the end of the course the students have at least a general outline knowledge of the whole course,—and that with an encouraging degree of definiteness. The pleasing thing is that with such a system they seem able to retain so much of the knowledge gained from prescribed and collateral reading.

When an American teacher visits the schools of Germany he is always struck by the amount of exact and detailed knowledge required of scholars in history. This means much drudgery, and hard discipline of the memory. In many American schools and colleges on the other hand the opposite extreme has been reached. The result is that teachers have become desperately fearful of requiring "drudgery" of students and the latter have come unconsciously to feel that if a history course is other than a kind of lyceum entertainment they have been robbed of their birth-right and put to undeserved bondage. That such conditions exist in a great many places the writer knows from conversation with many teachers and from some first-hand experience.

Here is a word then in favor of a reasonable amount of hard memory drill in school and college on the basic facts and dates of any history course. The outline thus mastered will aid the student in the assimilation of lectures and library reading. The "drudgery" involved is just another name for that rigorous mental discipline which American students should know more about. Few intellectual assets are to be valued above a trained memory.

FRONTISPIECE

The frontispiece pictures this month are taken from the "Authentic Pictorial Material for the Study of European History" collected by Dr. E. F. Henderson, and published by the New England History Teachers' Association. Two series have thus far been published; one on English history and one on French history. The two views of the palace of Versailles are taken from the series, composed of fifty-one pictures, upon the Court of Louis XIV. Dr. Henderson thus describes these views:

"THE ORIGINAL PALACE OF VERSAILLES. The palace and park of Versailles as they stand to-day form the grandest historical monument in existence. Louis XIV created them for the express purpose of setting his glory before the world, and all that the France of his day could boast of in the way of art and architecture was pressed into service. The present palace was built round the earlier one shown in this picture."

"THE PALACE IN 1688. The two great wings give the building a length of 900 feet. Yet there was none too much space for the court. Each great personage had a retinue of hundreds of attendants."

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EDITORIAL STATEMENT

By the action of the American Historical Association on December 29, 1911, the continuance of the publication of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE was assured. The association voted to support the paper both editorially and financially. An advisory board of editors was appointed, composed of members of the Association deeply interested in the problems of the history teacher. Two of the six members of this board are to retire annually. Dr. A. E. McKinley will retain the position of managing editor; and skilled teachers will edit the several departments of the paper.

The business management of the paper will remain with the former publishers. A subscription price of two dollars a year has been fixed, but a reduced rate of one dollar a year will be given to members of the American Historical Association and to members of local and regional associations of history teachers. It is hoped that the local associations will accept the Magazine as their organ, sending to it full information about their meetings and membership.

PRESENT INTERESTS OF HISTORY TEACHERS

A glance at the four pages succeeding this shows the recent rapid development of a community-of-interest-sentiment among history teachers, and it gives evidence of the many practical results of their co-operation. In 1898, when the famous Committee of Seven made its report, there was not, so far as is known, an organization of history teachers in the country, except the purely local social gatherings centering about the teaching faculties of institutions of higher learning. To-day regional and local associations of history teachers cover almost the entire country with their spheres of influence.

At the Buffalo meetings of the American Historical Association last December, this new professional consciousness was evidenced in several ways. The gathering of history teachers called to discuss the reports of the Committee of Eight was not only the most enthusiastic session of the annual meeting, but the discussion was carried on with an appreciation of the problems which would have been impossible a very few years ago. So encouraging was the outlook that the session took steps toward a national affiliation of all history teachers' associations. The same professional spirit is shown in the adoption of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE as an organ of the association.

Most interesting of the recent questions, is the study of the problem of the proper preparation of the teacher of history. In many parts of the country committees and associations of history teachers are trying to establish a standard, especially for the high school teacher of history. California has worked out an excellent system; the history departments in some of the western universities, and Brown University at least, in the east, have established rules for the certification of their own graduates. At the present time committees of the American Historical Association and of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, are studying the problem; the subject was discussed at Buffalo, and recently by the New England Association; and it is upon the program for the Middle States Association meeting in March. The discussions and reports of such bodies cannot fail to influence not only the body of history teachers, but also the institutions preparing teachers, and the school boards employing them. As the report of the Committee of Seven had great weight even among those who knew nothing about the teaching of history, so any action taken by the association upon the proper preparation of history teachers will have its influence in strengthening the position of the teacher.

Local history in the schools is to-day claiming the attention of many teachers. In New York it was recently the principal topic discussed at meetings attended by from five hundred to one thousand persons; and the results of such study were well illustrated by the pamphlet on local history prepared by the students of the Albany High School. In Mississippi, Prof. F. J. Riley has done much to awaken an interest in the history of the state; Professors Violette and Fair, of Kirksville, Mo., are at work upon a syllabus of local history; and a committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association is directing all the teachers of the section toward an intelligent use of local history.

Professional alertness among history teachers is shown in many other activities, such as the co-operative preparation of syllabi and of bibliographies, the publication of historical pictures, the recent attention to the study of economics in secondary schools, and the interest shown in many movements for social uplift.

A survey of the field well justifies the belief that Professor Salmon's ideal of a creative teacher of history is not far from realization.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

The Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association (formerly the North Central History Teachers' Association) will hold its next meeting in Bloomington, Ind.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The next meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association will be held at Stanford University, April 5-6, 1912. The secondary school section will consider the teaching of Economics in the high school.

A MOVEMENT FOR GREATER CO-OPERATION.

At the conference of history teachers at the recent meeting of the American Historical Association a committee was appointed to bring about greater co-operation between the various history teachers' organizations of the country. The committee, as appointed by Professor E. C. Page, chairman of the conference, consists of Carl E. Pray, of the Milwaukee Normal School, chairman; J. Montgomery Gambrell, of the Baltimore Polytechnic Institute; Samuel B. Harding, of the University of Indiana, and Walter H. Cushing, of the Framingham, Mass., High School.

CALIFORNIA HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The winter meeting of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association was held in Stockton, December 28. The officers for the ensuing year are: President, W. J. Cooper, Berkeley High School; vice-president, Miss L. Eleanor Johnson, Oakland High School; secretary, Miss Maude Stevens, Palo Alto High School. The program of the meeting was as follows:

1. The Teaching of Peace Through History: (a) The Teaching of Ancient History, Miss Eleanor Johnson, Oakland High School; (b) The Teaching of the Revolutionary War, L. H. Britton, Stockton High School; (c) The Teaching of the Civil War, E. K. Safford, Berkeley High School.

2. Practical Work for Peace: (a) The American School Peace League, Miss Ednah A. Rich, secretary California Branch, Santa Barbara; (b) Teachers' Assistance to the Cause of Arbitration, E. J. Berringer, Sacramento High School.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The officers of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland are: President, James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn; vice-president, Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.; secretary and treasurer, Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia University. Additional members of the Council: J. M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University; W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania; C. B. Newton, Lawrenceville School, Lawrenceville, N. J.; Mrs. Barbour Walker, Girls' Cathedral School, Washington, D. C.

The next meeting of the Association will be held at the Normal College, New York City, on Friday and Saturday, March 8th and 9th, 1912. The details of the program have not been arranged, but among the topics to be discussed will be the training of the high school teacher of history and the methods of improving the teaching of historical geography. The committee upon the teaching of economics in high schools is expected to make a report.

HISTORICAL MATERIAL.

The Committee on Historical Material of the New England Association has been reorganized, owing to the resignation of Professor Arthur I. Andrews as chairman. The committee now consists of Milledge L. Bonham, Jr., Simmons College, chairman; Miss Ellen S. Davison, Bradford Academy, secretary; Mrs. Mabel Hodder, Wellesley College; William Orr, deputy commissioner of Education, Massachusetts; Arthur I. Andrews, Tufts College; Louis R. Wells, Mechanic Arts High School, Boston; Walter H. Cushing, Framingham, Mass.

The committee is planning to bring out a revised and somewhat enlarged catalogue of its valuable collection of maps, pictures, models, slides and other aids to history teaching. This catalogue will be a useful guide to the available material and will save teachers the trouble of examining scores of trade lists from all the dealers. It will be sold for twenty-five cents, and orders should be placed early as the edition will be limited.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY TEACHERS.

A committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association has been gathering information concerning the practice of the several States in the certification of high school teachers of history. The committee, in the membership of which some changes have been made recently, now consists of Professors Anderson, Barker, Dow, Jones, Larsen, Libby, Paxson, Reynolds, Riley, Souissat, Townsend, Viles, Wilcox, Willard, and Woodburn. For six months the committee has been actively engaged in investigation and correspondence, and has found that there are wide variations in the present practice of States with reference to the life certificate, and it has reached the conclusion that no body representing but a single study could successfully attempt to standardize the practice. Almost no precedents were found concerning the historical equipment required of teachers in high schools. While some of the larger universities attempt to train their graduates with reference to the particular subjects which they intend teaching, they have no assurance that their students will be called upon to teach history alone. The committee felt that there was need of a vigorous campaign of education among school boards and superintendents to impress upon them the need of specific training in history for the successful teacher of history, and that the college graduate of miscellaneous training is unqualifiedly not suitable to be appointed to teach history in the high school.

Teachers at present engaged in teaching history were found to fall into three groups: (1) those whose training comprises less than the completion of the regular A.B. course; (2) those who have been graduated from colleges and universities; and (3) those who after graduating have improved their equipment in history by means of graduate or summer school instruction. The committee set aside for the present the consideration of the first group, the equipment of which was so miscellaneous that it could not adequately be treated by the committee; and the third class whose equipment is far better than that of the great mass of history teachers. They decided for the present that the second class, comprising the graduates of colleges and universities, could best be approached with chances of success as the result of an attempt to standardize the preparation.

Colleges and universities of the Mississippi Valley, the committee believes, ought to be induced to consider their curriculum with reference to the needs of teachers in history and to outline courses, including studies of history with supporting work in Economics and Political Science so that their graduates may with some degree of confidence, be recommended to teach history. The committee has framed a skeleton outline which it hopes will be filled in during the next few months. The questions to be discussed in the formation of this program are: (1) the number of semester years of the B.A. course which ought to go to history; (2) the number of semester years which ought to go to economics and political science; (3) the division of the years allotted to history among survey courses, advanced courses and other courses; (4) the wisdom of devising some form of seminary course in methods of teaching history for the B.A. student; and (5) the expediency of conducting these methods courses in the history department or in the department of education.

NEW YORK CITY CONFERENCE.

The New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held its first public meeting for the year on Saturday morning, December 16th, 1911, at the Normal College of the City of New York. In spite of the hard storm and the nearness to the Christmas recess, the majority of the members and a number of visitors were present, and the discussion was spirited.

The chairman of the Conference, Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, made a short address, outlining the purpose and place of the Conference and introduced the speaker of the morning, Dr. David Saville Muzzey, of the Ethical Culture School. The theme of Dr. Muzzey's very stimulating address was "How Modern Shall We Make Our Modern History?"

As the recent history syllabus has made this one of the working questions here in New York, Dr. Muzzey's paper was particularly

* Printed elsewhere in this number.

timely. Moses Weld Ware, of the Morristown School; Dr. Helen L. Young, of the Normal College; Fayette E. Moyer, of the De Witt Clinton, and Robert J. Halpin, of the Montclair High School, led the discussion which followed, and among the speakers who were drawn into the argument were Mr. White, Miss Byrnes, Dr. Schuyler, Mr. Paine, Mr. Shapiro and Dr. Dawson.

There were some differences of opinion as to how properly to emphasize modern conditions and how closely the teacher should adhere to the text-book in the class room. Mr. Ware showed how history might be taught from the modern viewpoint, advocating the topical method of treatment rather than the chronological. Miss Young protested against the dissecting of the past in the spirit of to-day, believing that the proper way to teach history was to make the past live over again and then show modern instances of similar conditions. In this way the teacher would avoid the grave danger of distorting the true value of facts and destroying historical perspective.

In the main the speakers were thoroughly in accord with the idea that history teaching must be related as closely as possible to present-day experiences and modern lines of development; in other words that it be made vital. As one speaker aptly said: "If you get into a baseball game in the fifth inning, you do not care what the score was in the third inning. You ask what the new score is. The third inning may have been very exciting, but you want the latest news, so that you can enjoy the game from the moment you arrive."

It was also pointed out that much depends upon the teacher. An enthusiastic teacher could teach anything in any way and give the students something vital. Mr. Halpin insisted that text-books were never dead, but that the teachers who used them often were.

The Executive Committee for the year 1912 is as follows: Miss Clara Byrnes, chairman, Normal College of the City of New York; Moses Weld Ware, secretary, the Morristown School, Morristown, N. J.; Miss Constance Warren, treasurer, the Brearley School, New York; Dr. Livingston Schuyler, the College of the City of New York; Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, Central High School of Newark; Miss Florence Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

All those who are interested in the study of history and government and in the teaching of these subjects are invited to join in the work of the Conference. Any member of the committee will be glad to receive the names of prospective members and to forward them to the secretary.

THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual fall meeting of the Association was held in Boston on Saturday, October 21, 1911. In accordance with a vote of the Association at a previous meeting, incorporation under the laws of Massachusetts was effected, and the following officers were chosen by ballot: President, William S. Ferguson, of Harvard University; vice-president, Mabelle L. Moses; secretary-treasurer, Walter H. Cushing, Framingham, Mass., High School; councillors, Jessie M. Law, High School, Springfield; Arthur I. Andrews, Tufts College, for two years; Susan M. Kingsbury, Simmons College; Rollin M. Gallagher, Middlesex School, Concord, Mass., for one year.

The subject for discussion at the morning session was "The Certification of Teachers in the High School, with Special Reference to Certification in History." The discussion was opened by Dr. David Snedden, Massachusetts Commissioner of Education, who said, in part: "In most of the American States where public schools are maintained there has developed a distinct system whereby public authorities may certify to the fitness of any person drawing public revenue for teaching in the public schools. In Massachusetts we have practically no system of certifying teachers. Over graduates of the normal schools the State Board has some control in setting up standards and ideals; and in some of the large cities the local authorities have developed a system of testing applicants for teaching positions. But in the small towns, in the two-teacher high school, there is no means of testing officially the fitness of teachers for their positions."

A system of certification should test the mental qualifications of applicants and should progressively set standards for teaching positions in the public schools towards which colleges might approximate.

No system of written examinations will accomplish these purposes. Representatives of the public school system of the State should be able to enter into relations and to cooperate with the institutions preparing teachers, so that by a system of credentials and other evidence we should be able to certify the properly-qualified

teacher, the growing teacher, without subjecting that person to written examinations by an external authority. A desirable goal is that set by California, where no person may enter a high school as a teacher who has not graduated from an approved college or university, and taken one year of graduate work and specialized preparation for teaching. One of the largest problems that a state authority has to face in the formulation of standards of teaching ability is the question: When a subject is taught in the schools, what is it taught for. When you say that you teach history in order that a boy may know history, you are setting up a definite goal. But when I ask you, why should he know history, no one has told us. We do not know, and until we can formulate our purposes, our methods and courses will be very lame and halting. One of the real purposes of education is to get the mind into an understanding, an intelligible and idealized grasp of the social environment, which is suggested by Continental and American history to a certain extent. Teaching and study are different things, but it seems that we could set up standards and out of it all should come a more fruitful work in the high schools themselves; that more and more every teacher would know how to teach his class on some basis that is psychologically defensible.

The discussion was continued by Professor William MacDonald, of Brown University, who described the requirements which a graduate must meet before receiving the endorsement of the history department to teach history.

Professor Edgar Dawson, of New York, outlined the rigid requirement which exists in Prussia; and Dr. John Haynes of the Dorchester High School, expressed the hope that the time would come when the United States would examine and certify teachers, issuing a certificate good in any State. He disagreed with Professor MacDonald in that he placed a higher value on the study of the pedagogy of a subject.

The guest of the Association at the luncheon was Professor Elizabeth K. Kendall, of Wellesley College, who spoke most interestingly of her recent visit to China.

HISTORY TEACHERS' SECTION NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The history section of the New York State Teachers' Association met in the Assembly Chamber of the Capitol at Albany November 28 and 29. From 500 to 1,000 teachers attended the meetings of this section. The following program was presented (chairman, E. W. Lytle, State Education Department):

TUESDAY MORNING—Coöperation of the State Historian with Teachers of History in the Schools of the State, J. A. Holden, State Historian; No Mummified History in the New York Schools, A. S. Draper, Commissioner of Education; Teaching of History as a Means to Good Citizenship, F. B. Kelley, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON—Visits to places of historic interest in Albany.

WEDNESDAY MORNING—The Point of View, Alice N. Gibbons, East High School, Rochester; The Use and Abuse of the Note Book. Open discussion in phases of this subject. Note books prepared in regular class work will be presented and discussed by Superintendent D. L. Bardwell, of New York, and others. Election of officers and other business.

With the exception of Dr. Draper's able and earnest plea for vitalizing history, the whole program of Tuesday was given over to showing the need, the opportunities and the value of using local sources of history. It was not the purpose of the program to foster any narrow spirit of provincialism, but rather to urge upon teachers the great value of using concrete material in awakening interest. However the papers presented and the discussions that followed were by nature of more local than of general interest. The special feature of the meeting was the distribution of a pamphlet prepared entirely by the senior class of the Albany High School, entitled "Historic Albany." The frontispiece of this pamphlet was a map showing the palisaded Albany of 1695 and a portion of the Albany of 1911. The sixteen pages of contents included the names of the contributors, a bibliography, a chronologic summary of history of Albany, a list with brief descriptions of 20 historic buildings now standing, a list of 29 tablets commemorating historic sites, events or characters, a list of 18 unmarked sites, a list of public and private collections of historic relics. The material used in compiling the pamphlet was but a small fraction of amount gathered and prepared by the pupils in thirty days.

In the afternoon, visits to historic spots and collections were made under the guidance of the students who had prepared the pamphlet. About 200 teachers availed themselves of this opportunity of seeing historic Albany.

Wednesday morning an address entitled "The Point of View," by Alice N. Gibbons, of the East High School, Rochester, made clear a successful method for using history not simply as a mental discipline, but in character-building and in citizen-making.

A valuable discussion of "The Use and the Abuse of the Note Book," by Superintendent Darwin L. Bardwell, of New York City, dealt largely with the scheme for note-book work recommended by the Education Department of the State of New York in its syllabus of History and Social Science. The criticisms were clearly and fairly made and are well worth the study of all history teachers. To be understood, however, they must be read in connection with the syllabus. Thus used, they might serve as a fruitful topic for discussion in future meetings of history teachers. Dr. Bardwell's paper will be published with the proceedings of the New York State Teachers' Association, 1911. The meeting closed with a paper by Mr. Edgar W. Ames, of the Troy High School, on the use of pictures in history classes.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The twenty-seventh annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at Buffalo, N. Y., on December 27 to 29, 1911, and at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., on December 30, 1911. The eighth annual meeting of the American Political Science Association assembled in Buffalo and Toronto on the same days. The attendance of the American Historical Association was not so large as it was in the two preceding years. There were few of the newer members of the association present, while those who have guided its affairs through a quarter of a century were as faithful as ever. The practice which has been growing in recent years for members to stay at the headquarters hotel, has added greatly to the social element of the meetings. The local arrangements for the entertainment of members were excellent. The officers and members of the Buffalo Historical Association and of the local clubs entertained the members most hospitably. It was a little unfortunate that on several occasions the meeting places were distant from one another so that members could not readily attend all the meetings. The programs for the sessions contained no single element of continuity; they showed rather the breadth of interest of American historical scholarship. There were conferences devoted to the problems of ancient history, of archivists, of Southwestern history, of State and local historical societies, of European history and of teachers of history. The ancient history section was, as usual, well organized, and its papers of general interest. The meeting of the archivists discussed the destruction by fire of the libraries at the Capitols at Albany, N. Y., and at Columbia, Mo., and the character and extent of Canadian archives. The conference of teachers of history was a lively one, developing much enthusiasm and resulting in the organization of the conference by the appointment of a chairman and secretary. The details of their proceedings will be found elsewhere in this issue. Great variety existed also in the programs arranged for the general meetings of the association as is shown by the topics assigned for these sessions: British imperial problems, international relations, Spanish-American and European history.

While these topics of the past more or less recent, were concerning the historians, the members of the Political Science Association were attending sessions devoted to many practical problems. A most interesting meeting was that which discussed the courts and judges as governing powers. Others took up State constitution-making, the county problem in municipal government, plans for efficient State government, and problems of county government.

Two joint meetings of the two societies were held, the opening meeting on Wednesday evening being that at which the presidential addresses of Professor William H. Sloane, of the American Historical Association,* and of Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin, of the American Political Science Association, were delivered. The other joint meeting was concerned with the relations of Latin and Anglo-America.

About one hundred members of the American Historical Association made a delightful visit to Cornell University on Saturday, December 30th. After luncheon as guests of the University, the members held a meeting devoted to problems of European history, in Goldwin Smith Hall. Later in the afternoon Ex-President White entertained the members at his home, giving a delightful informal

talk upon his early life as a teacher of history in America. After an enjoyable evening spent at the homes of members of the faculty of Cornell University and at the Town and Gown Club, the members left for their homes. While not so large in numbers, the meeting was successful so far as enthusiasm was concerned, and while there were no remarkable papers presented, yet they all preserved a high level of scholarship. It was decided to hold the next annual meeting at Boston and Cambridge, Mass., in December, 1912.

The officers of the American Historical Association for the present year are: Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, president; Professor William A. Dunning, first vice-president; Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, second vice-president; Dr. Waldo G. Leland, secretary; Mr. A. Howard Clark, curator; Professor Charles H. Haskins, secretary of the council; Professors Franklin L. Riley, Edwin E. Sparks, Fred M. Fling, James A. Woodburn, Herman V. Ames, and Dana C. Munro, elected members of the council.

The Herbert Baxter Adams Prize for the best essay on European History was awarded at the Buffalo meeting of the American Historical Association, to Miss Louise Fargo Brown for her study upon "The Political Activities of the Baptists and the Fifth Monarchy Men in England During the Commonwealth and the Protectorate."

The officers of the American Political Science Association for the present year are as follows: Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, president; Mr. Adam Shortt, first vice-president; Professor Ernest Freund, second vice-president; Judge Francis J. Swayze, third vice-president; Professor W. W. Willoughby, secretary-treasurer.

COMMITTEE APPOINTMENTS.

Appointments to Committees, Commissions, and Boards, American Historical Association, for 1912.

Editors of the AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW: George B. Adams, J. Franklin Jameson, Frederick J. Turner, Andrew McLaughlin (these four to hold over). George L. Burr, elected to serve for six years from January 1, 1912. James Harvey Robinson, elected to serve for three years from January 1, 1912.

HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPTS COMMISSION: Worthington G. Ford, Herbert D. Foster, Ulrich B. Phillips, F. G. Young, C. W. Alvord, Julian P. Bretz.

COMMITTEE ON THE JUSTIN WINSTON PRIZE: Claude H. VanTyne, Carl Becker, Francis A. Christie, William MacDonald, J. G. de R. Hamilton.

COMMITTEE ON THE HERBERT BAXTER ADAMS PRIZE: George L. Burr, Guy S. Ford, Edwin F. Gay, Charles D. Hazen, A. B. White.

PUBLIC ARCHIVES COMMISSION: Herman V. Ames, Charles M. Andrews, Victor H. Paltsits, Robert D. W. Connor, Gaillard Hunt, Jonas Viles, Eugene C. Barker.

COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY: Ernest C. Richardson, W. Dawson Johnston, George Parker Winship, F. G. Teggart, C. S. Brigham.

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**REPORT OF THE HISTORY TEACHERS' SECTION OF THE
AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, HELD AT
BUFFALO, DECEMBER 27-29, 1911.**

Mr. Edward C. Page, De Kalb (Ill.) Normal School, as chairman, gave a short address, congratulating the History Teachers' Section on becoming an established part of the American Historical Association meeting. He expressed the hope that a real interest might be shown by teachers of history in the work of the section that it might justify itself in the estimation of the executive council of the Association. Mr. Page expressed a desire that more extended notice might be given to the problems of history teachers by the officers of the Association.

The first paper was given by J. Montgomery Gambrill, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute, on the subject, "Ought the Report of the Committee of Eight to be Followed by the Elementary Schools?"

Julia A. King, Ypsilanti, Michigan Normal College, criticized the work of the first four years as given in the outline as not meeting the greatest needs of the child. She would begin with the child in his present environment and teach him the history, first, of his material wants and how they are supplied, and after that spend much time on the child's activities and interests as the member of a community.

Direct issue with Miss King was taken by T. F. Collier, Brown University, Providence, R. I., who gave a very clear presentation of the more generally accepted idea that primitive life and customs are more to the point in beginning the teaching of history to children.

Samuel B. Harding, University of Indiana, gave as his opinion that the sixth year of work in the outline was overloaded and wished that the work of the fourth and fifth years were more concentrated and simplified so that part of the sixth year's work might be shifted forward to the fifth year. His answer to the argument that the outline was intended to be flexible was that many teachers would not consider it so, and that many principals would demand of their teachers exact compliance with the fixed outline. He moved that the Teachers' Section appoint a committee to confer with the Committee of Eight, asking them to modify the work of the fourth, fifth and sixth grades in the direction indicated by Mr. Harding's suggestions.

There followed a spirited discussion participated in by Messrs. Fair and Violette, Kirksville, Mo., State Normal School and others. Eugene C. Brooks, Trinity College, N. C., spoke for the Committee of Eight. He said that while the committee was working on the outline, numerous requests came to the members asking that since so many children left school at the end of the fifth grade that the outline might be on American History up to that point and be as extensive as possible for children of that age.

The vote on the motion was not taken until James A. James, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., had presented his discussion of the papers given at the section meeting. Mr. James thought the outline was flexible enough to allow individual modifications and asked if it would not be advisable to wait a little longer until the outline had been tried out a little more before attempting to amend it. He thought that the several series of text-books soon to come out based on the outline would certainly help to solve the problem for the grade teacher. The motion was lost.

The paper on "How the Professional Schools Should Prepare Their Pupils to Teach in Accordance with the Outline of the Committee of Eight," by Carl E. Pray, Milwaukee, Wis., State Normal School, will be printed in the March number of this Magazine.

Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the Trenton (N. J.) State Normal School, gave a clear-cut presentation of the work done in the New Jersey Normal School in preparing students to teach history in the grades. Some of her points were as follows: Criticism of the ordinary, faulty methods found in the schools; consideration of what constitutes good history teaching; study and comparison of some of the best books on juvenile history; the use of maps and pictures; discussion of methods of questioning; topical recitation work; observation of history work in the grades. These are not all of Miss Dynes' points, but are some of those that were the most impressive as given. One gained from Miss Dynes' forceful and pleasing presentation of her methods of training history teachers, the impression of a thorough and systematic course carried out in a most skilful and interesting manner.

Mr. Pray moved that a committee be appointed to try to bring about a closer union among the various history teachers' associa-

tions of the country. The motion was carried, and the chairman, Mr. Page, appointed the committee as follows: Carl E. Pray, Milwaukee, Wis., State Normal School, chairman; Samuel B. Harding, Bloomington, Ind., University of Indiana.; W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass.; J. Montgomery Gambrill, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute, Baltimore, Md.

The History Teachers' Section meeting was a success if the interest shown by those present is any criterion. It is to be hoped that a wider interest in the art of teaching history may be stimulated by these meetings of teachers from widely separated sections of the United States.

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Bibliography of History and Civics

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

HENDERSON, ERNEST F. *Blücher and the Uprising of Prussia against Napoleon. (Heroes of the Nations.)* New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xvii, 347. \$1.50.

Blücher has been chiefly known to English readers as the general who came to the help of Wellington at Waterloo. Dr. Henderson's objects in the present volume are "to show that he had a separate existence of his own and performed other great deeds . . . that are equally deserving of praise" and to establish "Blücher in his rightful position as the peer of Wellington in all that concerns the overthrow of Napoleon." The author bases his book almost wholly on the great mass of German monographic literature mainly by military men and does not pretend to have done much original investigation and criticizing of the sources. His point of view is almost invariably the Prussian and this adds to the interest of the reader accustomed to the French or English view-points of so many of the works on this period available in English. He is probably too severe in his judgments of Wellington, but he does not conceal certain defects of his hero's character, and he certainly makes it transparently clear that the successes of the allied armies against Napoleon in 1813 and 1814 were due very largely to the enthusiasm and fearlessness of the old "Marshal Forward," as he was popularly named. Nearly three-quarters of the volume is devoted to the campaigns of the three years, 1813-1815, during which Blücher led the Prussian troops, but this is probably the correct proportion in a biography of him. The book is very well illustrated with a large number of rare pictures and contains good maps of the great battle fields. Numerous interesting anecdotes are interspersed, the style is simple and clear, and the whole volume is eminently readable. Clarence Perkins.

PUTNAM, RUTH. *William the Silent, Prince of Orange, and the Revolt of the Netherlands. (Heroes of the Nations.)* New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxiv, 518. \$1.50.

This biography has been prepared especially for the "Heroes of the Nations Series," and, while the material in the author's two volume work of 1895 has been used, the narrative has been rewritten with the help of certain new sources not available at the earlier date. The present volume is a scholarly, impartial account of the life of the Dutch leader, and shows clearly how he grew from the clever courtier of opportunist views and policies "to accept a real religious belief which completely differentiates him from Elizabeth of England or Henry of Navarre," and became the director of a great revolt which would assuredly have collapsed without his keen political sense, enthusiasm, and unflagging energy. The author's characterization of the Prince in the closing chapter is excellent, and there is much interesting material from his correspondence included in the narrative, but as a whole the book is rather too detailed and not sufficiently popular in style for use as a reference work for high school students. Clarence Perkins.

WILLIS, HENRY PARKER. *Stephen A. Douglas. (American Crisis Biographies.)* Philadelphia, George W. Jacobs & Co. Pp. 371. \$1.25.

Recent years have brought out three important biographical accounts of Stephen A. Douglas,—the first, that which is embodied in Rhodes's "History of the United States," and more recently the scholarly work by Johnson and the intimate, anecdotal sketch by Carr, and it is to these and to Sheahan's biography, published in 1860, that Professor Willis most often refers. As a party leader, swayer of popular audiences and manipulator of legislators, he declares that Douglas had no superior, but that "he had neither the temper nor the nature of the statesman and he was at all times too open to the claims of personal advantage to be willing to sacrifice immediate gains for the sake of a principle." (P. 192.) In this conclusion, he makes a less favorable estimate than do several others of Douglas' recent biographers, but doubtless it may remain a mooted question whether or not the politician in him always before 1860 overmastered the statesman. Yet there is no gainsaying that his was a tremendously potent influence in the fifteen years before the Civil War, and this popular account of his career discloses this well, together with the men, measures and political methods of the period. Consequently it may well have a place in the high school library. Wayland J. Chase.

DODD, WILLIAM E. *Statesmen of the Old South, or From Radicalism to Conservative Revolt.* New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 242. \$1.50.

What the educated Southerner of to-day thinks of ante-bellum leaders and issues, especially as they concerned his section, is here revealed, for the author is Southern in sympathy as well as by birth. For example, on page 135 he asserts that "As a matter of morals there was no difference between the demand of the Western Reserve that a prohibitive tariff in favor of their wool be maintained by the federal government, and that of South Carolina that negro slavery should be forever guaranteed. A high tariff on wool compelled the poor white man to give his labor to others without recompense; slavery compelled the negro to work for his master without reward." Yet the impression one gets from the whole book is not that of partiality and bias, but of temperate and fair statement and of lucid and clear analysis. The statesmen whose careers he sketches are Jefferson, Calhoun and Davis. "Jefferson," he says, "contributed the idealistic democracy which grew to conservatism under Calhoun, who always insisted that he was a follower of the first Republican president, but who nevertheless made slavery the basis of his system, . . . while Jefferson Davis, advancing yet a step farther, set the world in arms on behalf of slavery—the property interests, the 'privileged interests' of the time."

His narrative is untechnical and popular in style, and decidedly interesting. It is a first-rate book for the general reader, and should have a place in the high school library, especially because it affords so good a chance of viewing these national leaders and issues from an unaccustomed angle. Wayland J. Chase.

PAXSON, FREDERIC L. *The Civil War. (Home University Library.)* New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256. 75 c.

The author declares it to be his purpose "to show that the Civil War was more than a succession of battles; that it was a struggle between two civilizations, each the logical result of its environment and each endeavoring to work out the best American interest as it saw it, . . . with honesty and intelligence about evenly divided." Much the most stress is laid on the political, economic and social aspects of the contest, but the military elements are not seriously neglected, only subordinated, and the stream of events and the procession of important personages are both vividly revealed. The average reader likes to have clear-cut characterizations and definite estimates of men, policies and events, and these the author has supplied in satisfying amount and of judicial quality. Moreover, he has given movement to his narrative, so that the reader's interest is held and carried along from the beginning to the end of the war. His book does not supersede Dodge's "A Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War" because that is a strictly military account, but for the general purposes of the high school library this is a more serviceable book and is admirably adapted to the high school senior as well as to the general reader. Wayland J. Chase.

ILBERT, SIR COURTENAY. *Parliament, Its History, Constitution, and Practice. (Home University Library.)* New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256. 75c.

Teachers who wish to familiarize themselves with the actual workings of the English Parliament will find Ilbert's little book a very useful manual. As clerk of the House of Commons the author has had abundant opportunities to observe the parliamentary mechanism, the parts of recent growth and informal character as well as those that rest on statutes or ancient custom. The introductory chapter, which is chiefly historic, is written from the older manuals and is not of great value; but the remainder of the book is packed with interesting and suggestive information. Not much space is wasted on obsolete customs, offices and privileges; but the process of modern law-making, the duties of members both in and outside the houses, the organs of public opinion, and the workings of the modern party system are discussed with considerable fulness. Concrete and well-chosen illustrations help to elucidate the principles under discussion. A closing chapter compares the English governmental system with those of other leading nations, particularly our own. The work should find a place in the library of every school where English history is taught. Laurence M. Larson.

LIST OF BOOKS UPON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER 2-30, 1911.

Listed by CHARLES A. COULOMB, Ph.D.

American History.

- Ade, John. Newton County, Indiana, a collection of historical facts. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 314 pp. \$1.25.
- Bartholomew, J. G. A literary and historical atlas of America, Everyman's Library. New York: Dutton. 231 pp. 35c. net.
- Belcher, Henry. The First American Civil War; first period, 1775-1778, in 2 vols. New York: Macmillan. 350, 364 pp. \$6.50 net.
- Bonham, Milledge L. The British consuls in the Confederacy. New York: Longmans. 267 pp. Bibl. Paper, \$2.00.
- Cummins, George W. History of Warren County, New Jersey. New York: Lewis Pub. Co. 433 pp. Bibl. \$15.
- Cutler, Harry G., ed. History of St. Joseph Co., Mich. In 2 vols. New York and Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co. \$18.
- Dalbiac, Philip H. The American War of Secession, Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. New York: Macmillan. 187 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Fosdick, Lucian J. The French blood in America. New York: Baker & Taylor. 448 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Gracie, Archibald. The truth about Chickamauga. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 462 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Hardy, Dermot H., and Roberts, I. S. Historical review of Southeast Texas. In 2 vols. Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co. \$25.
- Hawthorne, Julian. The History of the United States. New York: Collier. \$2.25.
- Hinsdale, Mary L. A History of the President's Cabinet. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Geo. Wahr. 350 pp. \$1.75.
- Hopkins, Rev. Samuel. Historical Memoirs Relating to the Housatunnuk Indians. New York: W. Abbott. 200 pp. \$5.00.
- Houghton, Eliza P. D. The Expedition of the Donner Party (to California in 1846). Chicago: McClurg. 374 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Johnson, Amandus. Swedish Settlements on the Delaware. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Univ. of Penna. Bibl. 45 pp. \$6.00 net.
- Kleeberg, Gordon S. P. The formation of the Republican party. New York: Woods Pub. Co. 244 pp. Bibl. 9 p. \$2.00.
- Lancaster County, Penna. Report . . . of the First Settlement in Lancaster, Pa.: Lanc. Co. Hist. Soc. 74 pp. 25c.
- Laut, Agnes C. The Conquest of the Great Northwest. New ed. New York: Moffat, Yard. 839 pp. \$2.00 net.
- McGroarty, John S. California: Its History and Romance. Los Angeles: Grafton Pub. Co. 393 pp. \$3.50.
- Oberholtzer, Ellis P. Philadelphia; a History of the City and Its People. In 4 vols. Philadelphia: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. 452, 464, 531, 627 pp. \$28.
- Milliken, Charles F. History of Ontario Co., N. Y., and Its People. In 2 vols. New York: Lewis Pub. Co. \$18.
- Payne, William O. History of Story County, Iowa. In 2 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. \$18.
- Richman, Irving B. History of Muscatine Co., Iowa. In 2 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. \$18.
- Ridpath, J. Clarke. History of the United States. In 4 vols, rev. ed. New York: Review of Reviews Co. \$3.00.
- Ryan, Daniel J. The Civil War Literature of Ohio; a Bibliography with . . . Historical Notes. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. 518 p. \$6.00.
- Shepperd, E. W. The Campaign in Virginia, June to September, 1862. New York: Macmillan. 306 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Simons, Algie M. Social Forces in American History. New York: Macmillan. 325 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Smith, H. B. Between the Lines: Secret Service Stories Told Fifty Years After. New York: Booz Bros. 343 pp. \$1.25.
- Thruston, G. P. Numbers and Rosters of the Two Armies in the Civil War. Nashville, Tenn.: G. P. Thruston. 13 pp. Gratis.
- Turner, Charles H. B. Rodney's Diary and Other Delaware Records. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott. 148 pp. \$10.
- Waitz, J. E. L., and Croxall, A. E. The Journal of Julia Le Grand (New Orleans, 1862-63). Richmond, Va.: Everett Waddey Co. 318 pp. \$1.50.

Ancient History.

- Abbott, F. F. The Common People of Ancient Rome. New York: Scribner. 290 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Carter, Jesse B. The Religious Life of Ancient Rome (to Gregory the Great). Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 297 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Drucker, Aaron P. The Culture of Ancient Israel. New York: Bloch Pub. Co. 124 pp. 75c.
- Ferguson, William S. Hellenistic Athens, B. C. 323 to B. C. 86. New York: Macmillan. 487 pp. Bibl. \$4.00 net.
- Heitland, W. M. E. A Short History of the Roman Republic. New York: Putnam. 528 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Jones, Henry S. Classical Rome. New York: Holt. 372 pp. \$1.35 net.
- McCabe, Jos. Empresses of Rome. New York: Holt. \$4.00 net.
- Mommsen, Theodor. History of Rome (translated by W. P. Dickson). In 4 vols. Everyman's Library. New York: Dutton. 492, 452, 450, 600 pp. Ea. 35c. net.

- Sollas, W. J. Ancient Hunters (Archæology). New York: Macmillan. 416 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Walters, Henry B. The Art of the Romans (72 plates). New York: Macmillan. 185 pp. \$5.00 net.

English History.

- Atton, Henry, and Holland, H. H. The King's Customs, 1801-1855. Vol. 2. New York: Dutton. 576 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Coulomb, Charles A. The Administration of the English Borders During the Reign of Elizabeth. Philadelphia: Univ. of Penna.; New York: Appleton. 136 pp. Bibl. 8 pp.
- Craik, Sir Henry. Life of Edward, Earl of Clarendon. In 2 vols. New York: Macmillan. 394, 343 pp. \$5.50 net.
- Durand, Ralph. John Temple, Merchant, Adventurer, etc. New York: Macmillan. 371 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Edmundson, George. Anglo-Dutch Rivalry During the First Half of the Seventeenth Century. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 176 pp. Bibl. \$2.00.
- Freeman, Edward A. Old English History for Children. Everyman's Library. New York: Dutton. 338 pp. 35c. net.
- Greenwood, Alice D. Lives of the Hanoverian Queens of England. In 2 vols. Vol. 2. New York: Macmillan. 439 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Hakluyt, Richard. First Voyages of Glorious Memory. (Selections.) New York: Macmillan. 226 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Hammond, J. L. LeB., and Barbara Bradley. The Village Laborer, 1760-1832; a Study in the Government of England, etc. New York: Longmans. 418 pp. \$3.00 net.
- History of England. A School. In 2 vols. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 208, 206 pp. Ea. 50c.
- Jones, W. Lewis. King Arthur in History and Legend (Cambridge Manuals of Literature). New York: Putnam. 145 pp. 40c. net.
- MacCulloch, J. A. The Religion of the Ancient Celts. New York: Scribner. 399 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Maitland, Frederick W. The Collected Papers of F. W. Maitland. In 3 vols. New York: Putnam. 497, 496, 566 pp. \$10 net.
- Nettleton, George H. The English Bible; Some Account of Its Origin. New York: Holt. 13-37 pp. 60c.
- Seeböhm, Frederick. The Oxford Reformers. Reprinted from 3d Ed. New York: Longmans. 551 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Stephens, William R. W., and Hunt, William., eds. New History of the English Church. In 8 vols. New York: Macmillan. \$15.00.
- Tatham, Geoffrey B. Dr. John Walker and the "Sufferings of the Clergy." (Queen Anne's reign.) New York: Putnam. 429 pp. \$2.00 net.

European History.

- Batiffol, Pierre H. Primitive Catholicism. (Translated from the 5th French edition.) New York: Longmans. 424 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Blaze, Elzear Jean L. J. Recollection of an Officer of Napoleon's Army. (Translation.) New York: Sturgis & Walton. 280 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Brown, Gerald B. Arts and Crafts of Our Teutonic Forefathers. Chicago: McClurg. \$1.75 net.
- Bulfinch, Thomas. Legends of Charlemagne. (Everyman's Library.) New York: Dutton. 240 pp. 35c. net.
- Bury, John B. Cambridge Medieval History. Vol. 1. The Christian Roman Empire. New York: Macmillan. 754 pp. Bibl. 140 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Cambridge Modern History. Genealogical Tables, Lists, and General Index. Vol. 13. New York: Macmillan. 643 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Capgrave, John. Ed. by C. A. Mills. Ye Solace of Pilgrims: a Description of Rome, circa 1450. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 190 pp. Paper. \$3.00.
- Foord, Edward. The Byzantine Empire. New York: Macmillan. 431 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Jeyes, Samuel H. The Russells of Birmingham in the French Revolution and America, 1791-1814. New York: Scribner. 309 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Stevenson, Edw. L. Portolan Charts: Their Origin and Characteristics. New York: Hispanic Soc. of Am. 76 pp. \$1.75 net.
- Taylor, Henry O. Classical Heritage of the M. A. New York, Macmillan. \$1.75 net.
- Villari, Pasquale. The Two First Centuries of Florentine History. (Translation.) New York: Scribner. 576 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Welvert, Eugène. The Vicissitudes of a Lady-in-Waiting. French, 1735-1821). New York: J. Lane. 303 pp. \$4.00 net.

Miscellaneous.

- Chisholm, A. S. M., M.S. The Independence of Chile. Boston: Sherman French. 330 pp. Bibl. \$1.50 net.
- Dasent, Sir George W. Story of Burnt Nijal (Njal's Saga). (Everyman's Library.) New York: Dutton. 330 pp. 35c. net.
- Griffis, W. Elliot. Corea, the Hermit Nation. Ninth rev. ed. New York: Scribner. 528 pp. Bibl. 6 pp. \$2.50.
- Johnston, Charles H. L. Famous Privateersmen and Adventurers. Boston: L. C. Page. 398 pp. \$1.50.
- Lindsay, Forbes. Cuba and Her People. Boston: L. C. Page. 329 pp. \$3.00.

Marquand, Allen, and Frothingham, A. L. A Text-book of the History of Sculpture. New York: Longmans. 297 pp. \$1.50.
Porter, Robt. P. The Full Recognition of Japan. (Economic Progress to 1911.) New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 789 pp. \$4.00.
Smith, Eric F. Dictionary of Dates. (Everyman's Library.) New York: Dutton. 302 pp. 35c. net.

Biography.

Angell, James B. The Reminiscences of J. B. Angell. New York; Longmans. 258 pp. \$1.35 net.
Senior, Dorothy. Charles II, his court and his times. New York; Brentano's. 362 pp. \$3.50 net.
Allen, Charles F. David Crockett, scout, etc. Philadelphia; Lippincott. 308 pp. \$1.25 net.
Williams, Hugh N. Marie Caroline, Duchess de Berry (1798-1833. New York; Scribner. 391 pp. \$3.75 net.
Scott, Mary M. Life of Madame de la Rochejaquelein (royalist in La Vendée). New York: Longmans. 234 pp. \$2.50 net.
Biron, Armand L. Memoirs of the Duc de Lauzun, companion of Rochambeau in America. New York: Sturgis & Walton. \$1.50 net.
Emerson, Ralph Waldo. Journals of R. W. Emerson, edited by E. W. Emerson and W. E. Forbes, vols. 5 and 6, 1838-1844. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 571, 551 pp. each. \$1.75 net.
Holden, William W. Memoirs of W. W. Holden. Durham, N. C. Seeman Printery. 199 pp. \$1.25.
Bassett, J. Spencer. Life of Andrew Jackson in 2 vols. New York; Doubleday, Page. 450 pp. \$5. net.
Ducrest, Georgette. Memoirs relating to the Emp. Josephine, New York; Sturgis & Walton. \$1.50 net.
Page, Thomas Nelson. Robert E. Lee, man and soldier. New York; Scribner. 734 pp. \$2.50 net.
Norton, Eliot. Abraham Lincoln, an essay. New York: Moffat, Yard. 95 pp. 75 cts. net.
Moffat, Mary M. Maria Theresa. New York: Dutton. 382 pp. \$3.50 net.
Brown, Mary C. Mary Tudor, Queen of France. New York; Putnam. 280 pp. \$3.50 net.
Hamel, Frank. Théroigne de Méricourt. New York: Brentano's. 369 pp. \$3.50.
Sandemar, G. A. C. Metternich, life and career. New York: Brentano's. \$3.50 net.
Wemyss, Victoria M. Memoirs and letters of Rt. Hon. Sir Robt. Morier, (1826-1876) in 2 vols. New York; Longman's. 418, 418 pp. \$8.75 net.

Atterbridge, Andrew H. Joachim Murat. New York: Brentano's. \$3.50 net.
Fournier, August. Napoleon I, a biography, (translation) in 2 vols. New York; Holt. \$8. net.
Rose, J. Holland. William Pitt and the Great War. New York; Macmillan. 596 pp. \$6.00 net.
Taylor, Ida A. Life of Madame Roland. New York: Brentano's. 328 pp. \$3.50 net.
Lacombe, Bernard de. Talleyrand, the man. Boston; Estes. 400 pp. \$3.50 net.
Carden, Robert W. The Life of Giorgio Vasari: a Study of the Later Renaissance in Italy. New York: Holt. 374 pp. \$4.00 net.
Washington, George. Last Will and Testament, with notes, etc. Washington, D. C.; Government Printing Office.
Fisher, Sydney G. The true Daniel Webster. Philadelphia; Lippincott. 516 pp. \$2.00 net.
Dexter, Franklin B. Biographical Sketches of the graduates of Yale College. Vol. 5, 1792-1805. New York; Holt. 820 pp. \$5.00 spec. net.

Government and Politics.

Ames, Edgar W. New York State Government. New York; Macmillan. 56 pp. 20 cts. net.
Bacon, Edwin M. Manual of Ship Subsidies; an Historical Summary. Chicago; McClurg. 103 pp. 50 cts. net.
Garner, James W. Government in the United States. New York: American Book Co. 416 pp. \$1.00
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Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1912.

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ORIGINAL DESIGN FOR THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT. TAKEN FROM THE OFFICIAL PROGRAM OF THE DEDICATORY EXERCISES. SEE PAGE 50.

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Inscribed Stones in the Washington Monument

New Features in the History of the Monument

BY ARTHUR C. COLE, Ph.D., UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Rising from the banks of the Potomac in the capital city of our great republic, stands that majestic obelisk to the memory of him who was so closely, so vitally connected with its earliest beginnings, and who spoke even from the grave, words of guidance to those whose task it was to continue the work which he had so well grounded. We would like to think that it had always stood there from the time when Washington was taken to the fathers, but such was not the case. The nation shed its tears over his departure, it resolved that he was deserving to be ranked high among the immortals, then it turned to work out the weighty problems that threatened to overwhelm it in its struggling infancy. Ten days after his death Congress passed a resolution to devote the sum of two hundred thousand dollars to the erection of a marble monument in the capital. It was to bear suitable inscriptions and to be "so designed as to commemorate the great events of his military and political life." Beneath it his remains were to be entombed. But this, like a similar resolution passed as early as 1783 ordering an equestrian statue "to testify the love, admiration, and gratitude of his countrymen," was soon forgotten in the struggles of the young republic.

Perhaps the first stone to the memory of Washington was not laid until fifteen years after his death, and the incidents of this event are worthy of notice. In June, 1815, three sons of revolutionary patriots and soldiers sailed up the Potomac river to Popes Creek in the "Lady of the Lake," a fine topsail schooner of ninety tons. They landed in Westmoreland county before Washington's birth-place to which they proceeded with a small following composed of the overseer of the place and a few gentlemen whom they met on a fishing excursion. They found a few scattered bricks from the chimney of the old homestead out of which they constructed a rude pedestal. Upon this they placed the stone they had brought enveloped in the star spangled banner. It bore this inscription:

HERE
THE 11th* OF FEBRUARY, 1732
WASHINGTON
WAS BORN

After they had completed this part of the ceremony, they re-embarked, fired a salute from the cannon on board, and sailed away. It was a modest beginning, unnoticed by the country at large, but a sincere expression of the affection and patriotism of that trio.

In the early thirties, a Washington Monument Society was formed at Washington for the purpose of providing for the erection of a great national monument to the memory of the first of our presidents, one that should number among the world's most famous structures. For that reason an obelisk six hundred feet high was selected as proportionate to the character of its subject—the loftiest in the world. On the role of its members were many of the leading statesmen of the day and the list of its presidents included ex-

*Old Style.

President Madison, the father of the Constitution, Chief Justice John Marshall, its greatest interpreter, and several Presidents of the United States. The funds were to be raised by voluntary contributions and, as it was expected that citizens would compete for the honor and privilege of subscribing for the undertaking, donations were at the beginning limited to the sum of one dollar. The great undertaking, however,* struggled through a precarious existence of fifteen years before it made sufficient progress to warrant a belief in its ultimate success. Indeed, the project of a national monument at the capital came to be regarded as a joke on account of its slow progress; for a time even funds ceased entirely to come in. However, a compounding of interest swelled the funds and the work of building was begun in 1848. On the Fourth of July of that year the cornerstone was laid amid great ceremony in the presence of a notable gathering.

This event which called the attention of the nation to the enterprise was the beginning of a period that gave its promoters great encouragement. Numerous contributions began to come in from all parts of the country. The society announced that it would be pleased to receive a block of marble, granite, or other suitable stone from every state in the Union to be placed in the interior of the monument on the landings. Political events at this time were of a sort to stimulate a hearty response to this call.

A crisis was occurring in the history of the republic; secession and civil war were threatening to involve the nation in the bloody struggle that was only delayed for another decade. The South, dissatisfied with the treatment of her rights and institutions in the Union, was thinking of severing the bonds that held her to it. An overwhelming majority of the citizens of South Carolina were in favor of the dissolution of the Union, believing that the South would be benefited both pecuniarily, politically, and morally. One of her most prominent leaders, and a later United States Senator, declared the Union to be "a splendid failure of the first modern attempt by people of different institutions, to live under the same government." Such sentiment was not confined to South Carolina alone, but was expressed all over the lower South. These states, through their legislatures, through state constituent conventions, and even acting in a convention of the slaveholding states, seriously considered the expediency of secession and withdrawal from the compact of the federal Constitution. Even when the compromise acts of 1850 were adopted as measures of pacification to check the tide of agitation, it was found that they only incited the secession element in the South to a greater determination to safeguard the interests of that section and to a greater readiness to resort to disunion. The Union men labored hard to check this sentiment but for a time the odds were against them. The executives of South Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi, themselves of the opinion that now was the time to act, advised preparations for armed re-

*In seeming fulfillment of Dickens' slur at "A monument to Washington"

sistance when the issue should be made. Book-dealers in Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, noted an unprecedented sale of works on military tactics to southern buyers. The militia of South Carolina was carefully equipped and drilled under the Palmetto flag. The Mississippi legislature even refused to allow the Stars and Stripes to be unfurled over the state capitol where it was deliberating.

The call upon the various states for blocks of stone to the memory of Washington came inevitably, though unintentionally as an appeal for the preservation of the Union. It recalled to loyal citizens the counsel of his farewell address to frown at the first dawnings of any movement to alienate one portion of the country from another, with "Union" as the first, the last, the constant strain of his immortal words. They saw the full-orbed comet of disunion shooting athwart the political firmament, disturbing the harmony of our sys-



WASHINGTON MONUMENT TO-DAY.

tem, and threatening to throw it into chaos. At no previous period had the nation been more imperiously called on to rally around the principles of Washington and to refresh their recollections with his parting words of counsel and advice. Indeed several prominent and patriotic citizens proposed to make Washington's farewell address a text-book of sound political truth for all time, to be turned to when any new course of action is proposed and doubts entertained of its propriety, and of its safety to the honor and prosperity of the republic. The Union element of the Mississippi legislature answered the printing of a large number of copies of Governor Quitman's disunion message by forcing through a resolution ordering the printing of fifteen thousand copies

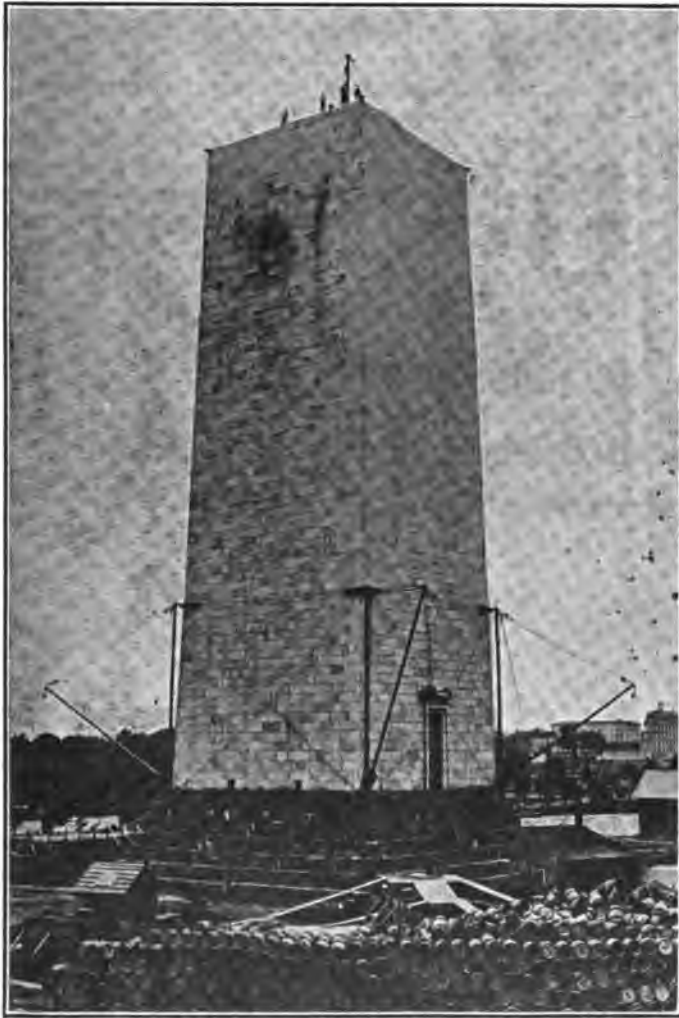
of the farewell address. At no previous period had Washington's precepts and the great lesson of his life been more generally appealed to than in the two years of 1850 and 1851, when the danger of disunion was doubtless greater than at any other time in the early history of the Republic. Pilgrimages were made to his grave at Mount Vernon, his name was toasted as the watchword against disunion, his memory was the pillar of fire that guided the nation through that crisis. "It is hardly extravagant to say," declared one of the leading newspapers of the day on the anniversary of his birth, "that, had it not been for the commanding authority of that honored name, and its historical associations, in favor of national and conservative principles, this Confederacy the fruit of the counsels of WASHINGTON, and in part the work of his hands, might before this time have been broken up in the violence of the conflict, which has been raging between men of obstinate prejudices and extreme opinion, upon questions of purely internal administration. . . . If that danger is now happily passing away, we are in a great degree indebted for our escape from it to the moral as well as the political influence of the memory of WASHINGTON."

As is to be expected, the national monument project became a popular one amid these conditions. Generous contributions came in from all sides,—from citizens in their private capacity, from the Masonic and Odd Fellow orders, from temperance societies, from schools and colleges, from Indian tribes, and from every possible source. Assemblies were held at the base of the monument on each succeeding Fourth of July to listen to the speeches of distinguished visitors. It was while at such a gathering in 1850, the monument then being fifty feet high, that President Taylor contracted his sudden and fatal illness from exposure to the midday heat while listening to a powerful appeal for the Union, by Senator Foote, of Mississippi. A craze for monument building developed in these years. Virginia began her famous one to Washington at Richmond, the project for a monumental column at Yorktown was taken up with enthusiasm, and Congress at length made an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars to carry into execution the resolution of 1783 for the erection of a bronze equestrian statue of Washington. It was even proposed to erect one to commemorate his achievements at Fort Mifflin. Meantime, the work on the obelisk overlooking the Potomac went on apace. Within a few years it grew to the height of one hundred and fifty feet.

The states had made a prompt response to the appeal to their affection for the Father of his Country. From them came the massive blocks—more significant by far than the stones from Switzerland, Rome,* Turkey, Greece, or even far China and Japan—inscribed with words of affectionate devotion to the Union as the best mode of expressing the reverence with which they cherished his memory, that we now see on the landings of the staircase within the monument. Michigan sent a block of native copper as "AN EMBLEM OF HER TRUST IN THE UNION"; Ohio inscribed upon a marble stone the legend, "THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON AND THE UNION OF THE STATES, SUNTO PERPETUO." "INDIANA—KNOWS NO NORTH, NO SOUTH, NOTHING BUT THE UNION." This sentiment was answered by Massachusetts,—“OUR COUNTRY IS SAFE WHILE THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON IS REVERED.” Maryland sent a marble block, "THE MEMORIAL OF HER REGARD FOR THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY, AND OF HER CORDIAL, HABITUAL, AND IMMOVABLE ATTACHMENT TO THE AMERICAN

* The pope sent two stones from the ruins of the imperial city. One of these was stolen by the Know Nothings, a secret anti-foreigner and anti-Catholic political organization which protested against the acceptance of the stones.

UNION," a sentiment similar to that of Kentucky,—**"UNDER THE AUSPICES OF HEAVEN AND THE PRECEPTS OF WASHINGTON, KENTUCKY WILL BE THE LAST TO LEAVE THE UNION."** Louisiana patriotically inscribed the words,—**"THE STATE OF LOUISIANA, EVER FAITHFUL TO THE CONSTITUTION."** The other southern states were more equivocal in their expressions. Alabama praised **"A UNION OF EQUALITY AS ADJUSTED BY THE CONSTITUTION"**; Mississippi sent a stone with the simple inscription, **"TO THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY."** Proud South Carolina and several others inscribed merely their coat of arms. The bitterness of feeling against the Palmetto state was evidenced when the figures on her coat of arms were mutilated after the block reached Washington—the work of some mad fanatic. On the fifty foot landing one finds the Georgia stone bearing the legend: **"THE CONSTITUTION AS IT IS, THE UNION AS IT WAS,"** an enigma to the tourist who does not understand the history of this period. This was inscribed under the



WASHINGTON MONUMENT IN 1876.

influence of Governor Towns, who in calculating the value of the Union had come to believe that it had become disadvantageous and perhaps undesirable to the South. The Georgia constituent convention of December, 1850, however, dominated by Union men, counteracted the importance of his action by sending in a block devoid of a hostile sentiment, and a later legislature ordered the original stone replaced by one bearing the arms of the state. This, however, appears never to have been done.

In 1852, it was noticed that the collection of contributions had begun to decline. In March of that year, when the monument was one hundred and five feet high, the society appealed to the American people stating that unless contributions became larger and more numerous than they had been in the last six months, it would be impossible to continue the work further. By that time the crisis had passed and the danger of disunion was temporarily removed. The Society now began to resort to new expedients to raise funds. Collection boxes were placed at the polls on election days labelled **"A DIME TO THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON,"** to encourage subscriptions on the democratic basis that had thus far been the feature of the movement. Now, however, new by-laws were adopted making the contributor of twenty-five dollars a member and of one hundred dollars eligible to the office of vice-president of the society. A special role of honor was provided for donors of from one hundred to one thousand dollars, whose names were to be inscribed in panels within the monument indicating the size of their gift. The Sons of Temperance of the United States are said to have made a proposition to complete the monument, it being supposed that the work could be accomplished in five years by each member of the order paying five cents a week. If this rumor was based on fact, nothing came of the suggestion. The Board of Managers next appealed to the clergymen to stir up the people on the Fourth of July, which happened to fall on Sunday, and suggested special collections in the churches for this great and patriotic object. The funds raised by these efforts made it possible for the work on the monument to continue until it rose to a height of one hundred and fifty feet.

In June of 1854, the officers of the monument society announced to Congress the end of their resources and their inability to raise money. The House of Representatives immediately appointed a select committee of thirteen to investigate the memorial of the association. On the following anniversary of Washington's birthday, the committee reported and recommended an appropriation of two hundred thousand dollars, the sum ordered to be devoted to the erection of a monument by the resolutions of 1799. Congress, however, failed to act. The society found it impossible to secure funds even though some of the promoters of the project made frantic efforts to stimulate contributions. The Mayor of New Orleans in 1855, issued a proclamation requesting the proprietors of coffee-houses and bar-rooms to close their establishments on election day and recommending that the sums that would otherwise be spent in drinks should be appropriated to the Washington monument fund. No response, however, was made to such appeals and the work on the monument came to a halt.

For a period of nearly a quarter of a century, the truncated obelisk stood upon the banks of the Potomac. Surmounted by its dismal derrick, it presented a sorry spectacle and seemed a gloomy foreboding in the years when civil war raged in the land and the enemies of the federal Union could almost have been seen from the top of the scaffolding. The Union was again in danger, but this time there was actual rebellion to be faced and all available funds were needed to put down the attempt to dissolve the confederacy. The republic survived this second and greater crisis and when the waves of war subsided, proceeded to reconstruct its disordered affairs, to substitute order for chaos. This done, the minds of the people, seeing the Union again safe and secure, turned to the memory of Washington and to the unfinished monument at the capital. In August of 1876, after the nation had enthusiastically celebrated the centennial of American Independence, Congress, inspired to decisive and emphatic action, adopted a resolution providing for the completion of the national monument. This was passed, as it auspiciously happened, on the one hundredth anniversary of

the formal signing of the great Declaration. Nine years later, on February 21, 1885, the completed obelisk, towering into the skies for five hundred and fifty feet, was dedicated with proper ceremony. The oration of the day was written by Robert Winthrop, of Massachusetts, who had made the corner-stone address thirty-seven years before. Unfortunately, however, illness prevented him from delivering it in person and it was read for him by ex-Governor Long, of the same state. We can only regret that a Daniel Webster did not live to immortalize the occasion by words as famous as those of the Bunker Hill oration.

The line of division between the upper and the lower sections of the white marble shaft is clearly marked by a difference in coloring. The lower one hundred and fifty feet has been seasoned by the smoke of civil war and darkened by age and experience.

During the long years from 1854 to 1876 those stones which had not yet been placed in the walls of the monument were deposited in a low, wooden building nearby, known as the Lapidarium. There the stones sent by the states were arranged for display together with those that had been presented by nations across the seas, awaiting the distant day when work on the unfinished shaft should be resumed. Tourists who beheld the blocks from Mt. Vesuvius, from the Alpine peaks, from the ruins of the ancient Carthage, from the Temple of Esculapius on the Island of Paros, and from other equally interesting sources quickly passed over the state stones, except the massive copper block from Michigan, weighing nearly a ton. The inscribed sentiments of devotion to the Union attracted but little attention. When, at length, active work hurried the structure toward completion, the stones were inserted in the walls without any regard to

the order of their reception or to the appropriateness of their surroundings. West Virginia, a state made possible only by the attempts of Washington's own state at withdrawal from the Union, was given precedence over Michigan, whose block was placed beside that of Kansas with the stones recently received from other younger states on the next level. The last state block to be cemented into the wall was probably that of Kentucky on the two hundred and thirty foot landing. That the state of Clay, the great Compromiser, had proved loyal to the sentiments it had inscribed thirty years before they were given a place in the monument is evident to those who recall how in 1861 it struggled with itself to maintain its place in the Union and won, "under the auspices of Heaven and the precepts of Washington."

The monument, as originally designed by Robert Mills, consisted of a circular colonnade 250 feet in diameter and 100 feet high, over which the obelisk was to rise for 500 feet more. The colonnade was to consist of 30 columns, one for each state, with the coat-of-arms of the several states placed over the columns in the frieze. The entrance was to be through a portico of three rows of four columns each, which was to be surmounted by a statue of Washington riding in a triumphal car. The interior (which was to carry out the general scheme) was to be arranged to contain the tomb of Washington and the statues of the nation's greatest statesmen and to serve as a sort of national Pantheon. On each face of the shaft above the colonnade was to be sculptured the four leading events of Washington's career in bas relief and fifty feet from the summit a single star was to be represented.

The Doctrine of Interest

As Related to Instruction in the Social Sciences in the High School.*

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May we direct our attention to a fundamental educational doctrine, and to its bearing upon the instruction in the high school, of the social sciences, viz., history, civics, and economics. It is the intention of the writer to consider rather the application of the theory than the psychology of the doctrine. If, perchance, we should postulate wrongly from a psychological viewpoint, we shall, at least, have increased our own interest in an important principle of historical instruction.

The educational activity, of late, has been very busy in the emphasis laid upon the instruction in the manual arts and agriculture. This is as it should be. Any educational system which does not touch the whole child and all the children has very little reason for existence. But the question arises, have not the so-called academic subjects been neglected in the educational upheaval? Have the interests of the pupils in these subjects been satisfied? Do the social sciences as taught to-day conform to the pupil's environment? Professor O'Shea ("Education as Adjustment," p. 148) quotes a poem which represents quite truthfully the discontent of the modern school-child, due to the lack of adaptation of the instruction to the child's needs:—

That two times two were hop-sotch,
And two into eight went fishing,
Or d-o-g spelled "I spy,"
Or geography were a description
Of the earth's swimming holes,

Or Grammar were the study of the parts
Of a boat,
How much more gladly would you seek
True wisdom
In the school-house walls.

In other words, the child says, "What's the use?" We cannot always answer that question to his satisfaction; we should, however, more and more create such a condition that he will not want to ask it. Can we create such a condition by a greater attention to the doctrine of interest?

President Schurman calls interest "the greatest word in education." Certainly we must agree with Shakespeare that "no profit grows where is no pleasure ta'en." May Professor O'Shea be quoted as to just what is to be understood by the doctrine of interest: "Interest will not be confounded, of course, with whim or caprice or humor or freak; it is not temporary or fanciful. Interest expresses the attitude of the organism toward the environing world which is believed to offer possibilities of pleasure and pain, and acquaintance with it is deemed to be highly desirable." ("Education as Adjustment," p. 151.) It is "not a mere tickling of the mind for transient ends" (DeGarmo). It is that condition of the mind whereby the attention of the pupil is attracted for some length of time towards a certain end, or towards a certain means of attaining that end. It is a large part of that mental attitude of the pupil's mind, whereby we determine when various subjects shall be taught. A correct understanding of the interests of the pupil, along with consideration of one or two other educational principles, tells

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us when fairy stories should be taught, when history instruction should be based largely upon biographical study, when the causal relation of historical events should be studied. The activities of the pupil, then, are ordered more in accordance with his abilities and his environment, the essential conditions of all educational instruction to-day.

It is clear, therefore, that the interest of the child is one of the important conditions for the successful teacher to develop. Without this the mind of the pupil will not be directed to the best advantage towards the subject or towards the phase of the subject in hand. "Whatever does not interest the mind, that the mind is indifferent to; and whatever is indifferent is for that mind as if it had no existence" (McLellan, "Applied Psychology," p. 18). The instruction of the teacher in the constitutional development of England's institutions will not secure the entire interest of the pupil, until it is made clear to him that our institutions are to-day largely from the English ones. Then the pupil's interest is aroused in that an appeal is made to his environmental experience. "Nature has implanted in every person a profound desire to learn about the things with which he has relationships, and the outward manifestation of this is called interest" (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 150).

The development of the faculty of effort, viz., the ability to apply one's self to the work in hand, should be the constant purpose of the teacher of any subject. If the history course has not increased the power of the pupil to express his thoughts in written or spoken form, then the teacher has missed one of the great fruits of his energy. The greater the interest of the pupil in the particular phase of history studied, the greater the self-expression by the pupil. It is what DeGarmo calls the "volitional activity" of the pupil, and what another writer mentions as the tonic thrill of "a healthful mental life." If the pupil's history and civics instruction has been a meaningless, "phonographic" recital of facts, then, in after life, certainly bad city government or English budget questions will have no place in his thoughts. But if the interest of the pupil has been secured in such a way that he enjoys the discussion of the 1832 Reform Bill or the causes of economic crises, he will then enthuse in the description of the budget legislation or in the discussion of high prices,—even though such discussion may seem meagre to the mature mind.

As history teachers, we need to arouse the interest of the pupil in order to get the fullest expression of his mind. To put it plainly, he will not do things with the highest motive, unless he is interested. He may get his lesson because there is assigned "pages 25 to 32," but woe unto the teacher whose work has deteriorated to such a level. In fact, interest increases self-activity, and self-activity begets interest. They are natural concomitants of each other. "This principle (interest) transcends almost all others in educational importance. The pupil's mind must be aroused from within and his own activity called upon, if he is to be interested in any subject." Who of us does not remember that knotty problem in arithmetic or algebra, over which we worked till the "wee small hours of the morning" and the thrill that came over us when we had solved it? Who of us, as teachers, cannot testify to increased interest by our classes as a result of the completion of a definitely assigned task? Why this inevitable result, accompanied by the thrill of conscious power? Because it is "the internal realization of outgoing energy." As DeGarmo puts it ("Herbart and the Herbartians," page 18), "Interest has its origin in the exhilaration, the sense of power of mastery, that goes with every internally impelled effort to realize a condition for the survival of the self, whether such survival touch one aspect of the man or another. Interest is therefore dynamic in character." If the history instruction deals with historical trivialities, and lessons are assigned with no discrimination, for fear that something will be left out; if the civics lesson is not enlivened through-

out by reference to the operation of institutions in our midst; if the economics, as taught in the high school, is weighted with abstruse theories, and there is no application of simply-worded theories to existing industrial conditions,—if the social sciences are to be of this content, even the child's utmost self-activity will not create interest. But with the subjects given the right content, the pupil's self-activity will arouse interest, and the increased interest will incite further self-expression. When any subject fails to develop this ability of the pupil, viz., the faculty of effort, one of the chief purposes of education is neglected, for the acquisition of the content of the subject, however important, is secondary.

What part in our method shall this development of the pupil's power of expression have? Shall he feel no burden, no mental pain? "The theory of interest does not propose to banish drudgery, but only to make drudgery tolerable by giving it a meaning." (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 151.) It is not the province of this paper to discuss the difference between the Hegelian theory of interest, with its emphasis upon effort, and the Herbartian theory, with its emphasis upon pleasurable reaction. Dr. Dewey has ably worked out a middle ground, incorporating in correct proportion the good elements of the two interpretations. We are neither to drive, to compel, nor to allure, to coax. We must pursue a middle course.

There is a distinct connection between effort and interest. Our interests may be directed toward the attainment of some idea or the realization of some end, and through effort the end is reached. Thus the interest in a certain end is realized through the exercise of effort, and complete expression is brought about. The outlining of the proceedings of the constitutional convention of 1787 may not be easy, nor even excite pleasure, at first; but as the pupil gets into the "thick" of the problem, his interest is aroused on account of self-exertion. When the effort becomes drudgery, then it is time for the teacher to find some new way of arousing the interest of the class; for the tasks which interest do not fatigue one as readily as those which one "hates." "The stimulus which calls forth as much of the mind's activity as is possible without straining it, is of proper strength and awakens the most interest." (McLellan, "Applied Psychology," p. 111.) Never, never, as a general policy should the teacher outwardly compel pupils to direct their interest toward certain things. Each day's lesson should be presented in such a way, that it naturally grows out of the previous day's work.

A history class which works through library references and reports, rightly assigned to supplement the text, will have more interest in the work than one which uses only the textbook. There will arise pleasure, in studying more about a great character in history or in reading in connection with the study of economics what a union man has to say about unions. The writer has seen a civics class become very interested, because it was called upon constantly to apply the content of the text to the institutions about it. The note-book work was made a means, not an end. This, at first repulsive, was soon considered the most pleasurable part of the work. The teacher might just as well give the information to the class, so far as the storing of facts is concerned; in form, it would be even more effective. But how much better it is, that the class should work out the material by its own efforts? The writer has very little faith in the instructive power of anything told by the teacher, or by one pupil in a class report. It is like water off a duck's back; the ideas do not "stick." Continual expository teaching is ineffective. It takes more effort on the part of the teacher to arrange the work so that the pupil finds out things for himself; but there is certainly more training in it for the pupil. The real teacher will consider the development of the pupil above his own pleasures. Effort must be exercised and interest must be maintained in reasonable proportion; the relative ratio of the two

will depend upon the subject, the topic, and the ability of the teacher.

The faculty of self-expression should certainly develop the power to think, what some call the apperceptive power. The power to think, to co-ordinate the mental processes, is one of the chief powers for the pupil to develop. If he has not in four years' time learned how to use his mental powers better, then his training has been deficient just that much. Of all the subjects taught in the high school, history instruction is most likely to lack this element, the training in power to think. Much of the history instruction is still permeated with a recital of unimportant minutiae and meaningless details; it has degenerated into a mere memory exercise. The pupils are entirely at sea when questions are asked involving comparisons of facts, causes of events, characterizations of historical personages, etc. Too often it is necessary to phrase questions in the words of the book and in the order of presentation of subject-matter. No wonder that the work becomes lifeless and the pupils in large part come to look upon the history recitation with aversion. This results in a phase of arrested development, for "the effort involved in always doing what one hates results in arrest of cerebral development, if in nothing worse. (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 152.) The pupils are not to be blamed for a hostile attitude towards the subject under such conditions. Their young, active minds yearn for something upon which they can sharpen their intellects. They long for an exercise which shall bring results and the completion of which shall fill them with mental intoxication. They will then be interested.

It is far better that a profitable study be made of two of the crucial movements leading up to the Civil War than that the pupil's time should be occupied with the drudgery of a recital of events, in which sight of the pivotal movements is lost. It is just as well that the pupil not be able to recite in chronological order the course of events of the French Revolution, if he knows the causes of that great event, the chief actors, and understands the transition to the Napoleonic régime. It is along this line that a moderate use of the sources can be made. The class can be called upon occasionally to answer questions in interpreting the words of some statesman, rather than reading about that statesman. Some teachers cannot get away from the connected account. They are lost if one detail in the order of development is left out. They prefer to sacrifice the pupil's power to the pupil's store of knowledge. Which will the pupil use most in after life? Let both be attended to, but not one slighted at the expense of the other. The text-books do not need to be rewritten; it is the teaching that must radically change in that the text-book is to be more and more a guide only, a skeleton. It will take a talented, discriminating, well-balanced teacher to teach according to this standard. But why not? It takes as much intelligence and pedagogical training to teach history as any other subject in the high school curriculum. No longer is the history class to be handed over to the teacher whose time is not filled, on the supposition that "anyone can teach history" who can read English.

The nature of the other two social sciences—civics and economics—taught in the high school does not admit of quite so much neglect in developing the thinking power; yet there is room for improvement. Compare the interest of the pupil in civics when it is a study in the interpretation of the dry bones of constitutional forms with the study of the workings of governmental departments, there being little mention of constitutional forms. The interest of the pupil in the latter case will be far above that in the former. The more the pupil is called upon in civics to think as well as to remember, the more interested he becomes. A study of the main points of the argument in the Insular Cases, even though hard, will, when completed, reap a more intelligent understanding

of the relation of the various territories to the United States, than an abstract statement of the relation ever would do. The economics class becomes enthused over a term paper, whose preparation is reported on at various times during the term. Why? Because it is restricted in choosing subjects to those industries in its midst or to vital industrial questions of the day,—a wholesale dry goods company, the telephone exchange, high prices, pure food law, etc. But the interest aroused is not due entirely to the selection of topics within the environment of the pupils. More, they are called upon to gather their material first-hand, to organize it under the direction of the teacher, to do their own thinking. Our instruction in the social sciences has been weighted with a "lot of stuff" which should be relegated to the ash-heap. More emphasis needs to be placed upon the thorough understanding by the pupil of the pivotal movements in history, of the civic and industrial society about him. Not "how much" but "how well" should be the aim of the teacher of the social sciences. Let us note Professor DeGarmo's consideration of the relation of thinking and interest: "Interest, voluntary attention, and thinking are synonymous terms, to the extent that they belong together, presupposing and supplementing one another in the solution of concrete thought problems. It is only the pressure of mass instruction that has concealed from us this intimate and important identity between interest and voluntarily directed attention to the solution of self-directed, or at all events, self-welcomed problems. It is the memorizing of ready-made answers, required or anticipated, that dulls the thought powers of the child."

There are certain conditions that will promote the development of the pupil's interest. It is only possible to discuss them briefly here. Interest begets interest, and so a teacher who is not enthused in her subject cannot arouse any high degree of enthusiasm for it, on the part of the pupils. It is not desired that an unbridled enthusiasm be inspired which prompts a greater amount of time upon the history work than upon the other subjects of the course. But if the teacher is full of her subject and knows how to present it in an attractive way,—has *obiter dicta* of illustrations at her tongue's end, as it were—a large part of arousing the interest of the pupil will be attained. No doubt, this is where that mysterious, unknown factor—the personality of the teacher—has such an influence.

The pupil is always raising the question, "Well, what's the value of studying this?" The question may arise in the study of Greek confederations, or in a study of the Fall of the Roman Empire. It is the teacher's work to show the significance of apparently unrelated facts and connect them with the present. "Why a study of the Reform Bill of 1832?" The reply will be, that then we will better understand the present budget crisis in England. "Why a study of the constitutional convention of 1787?" And the answer will be, that we may better determine the functions of different parts of the government to-day through a study of the intentions of the framers of the constitution. "Why a study of the benefits and defects of labor unions?" That we may take an intelligent, rational position in a great industrial question to-day. "Why a study of the intricacies of English constitutional development of the Middle Ages?" In order that the citizen of to-morrow may realize that his political welfare and freedom depend upon the maintenance of the historical principles of freedom. "Why a study of the city government of St. Louis?" That one may become a better citizen, for right knowledge generally begets right action. An investigation of the taking of the census is an excellent example of first-hand study. The interest in the pupil's part in that census will be projected into the study of the otherwise more or less lifeless text,—lifeless, in that it often seems so to the pupil. The writer believes in a con-

stant reference to problems and conditions of the day, no matter what period of history or what other social science is being studied, so long as such consideration serves only as a sidelight and does not overshadow the lesson in hand. It is in connection with this that clippings from newspapers and periodicals can be used to such advantage. Pupils, though, have to be directed considerably in their use. The pupil may not have been interested in events far removed from his time. But by an inductive process, this has been secured not alone through skill of presentation, but also by appealing to that in which he is interested, viz., the "day's news," since it is a part of his environment. The press dispatch on the assassination of the King of Portugal will call up the industrial and political chaos typical of that little country. The accounts, serious and humorous, of the taking of the census will give food for an interesting recitation. The illness of Francis Joseph will suggest a consideration of the internal and external forces affecting the permanency of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The civics class will be instructed to cut out of the daily paper the account of the proceedings in Congress, affecting the change in the Committee on Rules. This appeal to the present cannot be made so much in some courses as in others, yet in all of them we need to enliven our work in this way. Thus we may do our part, even though it may be little, to direct the pupil's attention to the best of the storehouse of public events and public opinion. He will read enough of the trash of the daily press, and it is within our power to reduce this tendency.

The teacher, whatever his charm of manner and skill of presentation, cannot secure the best of results without proper equipment. The history teacher should not and does not ask for such expensive equipment as the teacher of physical sciences or the manual branches. But he must be provided with some equipment, more than a text-book and bare walls, whereby to fulfill the proper conditions for arousing and maintaining the interest of his class. A few months ago an item was printed in an educational paper, relating that the school board in a large western town had included in the cost of a new building the expense necessary to purchase maps, stereopticon, slides, etc. Why not? Are these not as necessary as test-tubes, Atwood's machine, induction coils, microscopes, lathes, etc.? When school boards throughout this country learn to allot the equipment to the various subjects proportionate to the respective needs, they will materially aid the history teacher in maintaining the interest of the pupils. Then there will be the necessary equipment, viz., library books (duplicate copies of a few well-adapted books for class use, rather than many single copies), wall maps, stereopticons and slides, outline maps, etc.

To maintain the interest of the class, monotony of presentation must be avoided. At one time, it is a memory lesson largely; at another time the imagination is appealed to; then comparison of governments is made. Constant activity of the mind in one direction produces mental fatigue. Thus the energy is lowered, and therefore the interest is lessened. Reviews must not consist of going over the subject matter in the same order, with larger assignment; they should be carried out with reference to the whole, and in such a way as largely to present the appearance of new material. The very nature of the content of the social sciences is conducive to variety of topic matter. Some pupils are attracted to social development, others to constitutional development, others to a study of campaigns, and still others to biographical study. Let the pupil express his efficiency in a study of the particular phase in which he is interested. The attention of the class should not be held on one topic too long. When the teacher notices that the minds of the pupils

are becoming fagged and the class becomes listless, it is time to use some device that will hold the interest, or pass to an entirely new phase of development. Social sciences are subjects in which the conditions for variety of content and method of presentation are ideal.

The interests and mental ability of pupils vary. History taught in the first year of the high school considers a different psychological basis from that taught in the fourth year. What are proper conditions for arousing the interest of the pupil in one section of the country would fail in another. Civics for a large city would vary considerably from that taught in an agricultural high school, or to foreigners learning English. The teacher is to realize the limitations of the pupils; yet this does not mean that he is to leave nothing for them to do. It is very seldom that an outline or a tabulation or a map should be perfected by the teacher for class use, until the class has first tried the exercise. The teacher is to suit his knowledge and methods to the varying temperaments and abilities of his pupils. "It is far easier to treat the entire class alike and to drive them over the hurdles set by a single required course of study, in the vain hope that the weak and timid will not be injured as much as the strong and the confident will be benefited and that somehow or other the algebraic sum of the results of the process will bear a positive sign." (Butler, "The Meaning of Education and Other Essays," p. 85.) The teacher is to be a scholar always, but he is not to remain on a scholarly pedestal, aloof from those whom he instructs. He will then adapt himself to the abilities, needs, interests of his pupils, for the child is more important than the subject-matter. Our chief mission is not to cram facts—however useful they are, in due proportion—but to develop in the pupils power to do, through the agency of the acquisition of facts.

The writer disclaims any distinct contribution to the instruction of the social sciences in the high school. This humble effort has at least set himself to thinking. Interest is not by any means the chief educational principle, for there are others just as important,—attention, correlation, apperception, disciplinary value of studies, etc. After all has been said, though, does Staude (quoted in DeGarmo's "Herbert and the Herbartians," p. 65) put it too strongly when he says: "Interest is the charmed word which alone gives power to instruction to call the spirit of youth and to make it serve the aim of the master. It is the lever of education, which, lightly and joyfully moved by the teacher, can alone bring the youthful will into desired activity and direction." The less the teacher has to compel study and the more he gets it through voluntarily aroused interest, the greater the results of the teacher's energy. As a profession we must put before us the motto, "Keep growing," and "interest is the signboard pointing the direction in which education must proceed" (O'Shea, "Education as Adjustment," p. 151), and we must grow. We must get out of the beaten path; do better to-morrow than to-day. We must vitalize our instruction. We need to stop and inquire when pupils dislike a subject; why does it not appeal to their interests? Their attitude should be a powerful check on our indifference, our slovenliness. Is the difficulty of our instruction inherent in the subject, the pupil, or in the teacher? Let us not put it in one place, only.

We are at least justified in our study of this educational principle by such an eminent authority as President Butler, who writes: "I earnestly commend to every teacher the study of these two principles, apperception and interest. I do so in the firm belief that the practical result of that study would be an immense uplifting of the teaching efficiency of every educational institution in the United States." (Butler, "The Meaning of Education and Other Essays," p. 86.)

History in the Normal Schools

How Shall the Professional Schools Prepare Their Pupils to Teach in Accordance with the Report of the Committee of Eight?*

BY CARL E. PRAY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN.

I do not understand that in this article I am to enter into particular methods of training teachers for work in teaching history, but rather to indicate some of the more general lines of preparation that may be desirable as a foundation for handling grade work in history. The outline of the Committee of Eight is very clear cut and definite and to that extent requires no more preparation than any other good outline of history work for the grades; on the other hand it represents a much broader range of ideas, historically, than most outlines and presumes a preparation and point of view far more comprehensive than are ordinarily found in the grade teacher, whether normal school graduate or not. If the immediate future is to find history work in the grades in any degree as efficient as contemplated in the Committee of Eight's outline, then it is indeed time for the normal schools and all other schools preparing teachers of history to give far more extensive work in history than most of them now do. Just how this is to be done in a two years' course already crowded and jealously watched by the teachers of every department, is the problem in hand.

It would seem to me that a clear conception of exactly what we are aiming at in our history work will be helpful at this point, before taking up the particular courses desirable for the necessary preparation. Are we training for the benefit of the pupils under us or for the children they are to teach? Since we are discussing work in professional schools it might seem as though this were a needless question; our normal schools have been organized for the express purpose of training teachers to teach children, and to some it would seem as though all thought and energy should be devoted to showing students how to teach. When we consider, however, that our students average only from three to five years in the teaching business, it makes us pause to consider if, after all, we are not training for citizenship fully as much as for the profession of teaching; and again, we must not lose sight of the fact that it is as essential that a teacher have something to teach as that he should know how to teach it. A due consideration of these points will help in the discussion as to whether our courses in the normal school shall be primarily courses in methods or primarily courses in history.

This has been a tender point in the past and still remains so. The colleges and universities have pointed the finger of scorn at the normal schools for, as they say, sending students out with detailed instructions in the art of teaching particular studies without having in their minds anything in particular to teach. The normal schools have charged that the colleges and universities have considered that to be a successful research student would guarantee success in teaching and they have so centered their instruction to this end, that many of our high schools, officered by students trained in this way, have suffered from over-doses of the lecture method and post-graduate specialization. I think that all these charges have been in a large measure, true, but that both the normal schools and the western universities, at least, have gradually changed their point of view during the last few years, so that the normal schools are giving something besides methods and devices, and the universities are placing skill in teaching on a par with dili-

gence and constructive ability in research. I believe that the universities have room for further advancement in this direction and that the normal schools may profit by a still greater emphasis on the scholastic side.

In some quarters we are urged to teach the students exactly what they are to teach, that is, in the case of history, if the students are to teach the outline of the Committee of Eight, use that outline as a syllabus for the normal school work in history. I believe that that would be the worst possible mistake that the normal schools could make. Such a course might do for students who had already taken a college course in history and who needed to get university methods out of their systems, in order that they might get the child's limitations in mind, but to give such a course to students whose knowledge of the range of history is limited to the text-book preparation which most high schools give, would almost inevitably fix his ideas of history at the low tide-water mark of text-book preparation and juvenile understanding. The very references called for in the outline would tend to make him narrow and hidebound, for they would represent to him the maximum of general reading and scholarship in history and would tend to make him consider himself a prodigy of learning because he had read a number of chapters on isolated and often unrelated topics in large books that were not text-books. He might consider himself what one of the most prominent superintendents of schools in the United States had in mind, when, at a conference of normal school teachers and school superintendents last year, he declared, "The superintendents demand that the normal schools send them *journeymen* teachers." My profoundest conviction is that we do not expect nor want, in the limited courses we can give, to send out from the normal school anything of the kind. The journeyman is the finished product, he has all the methods at his tongue's end, he is teeming with devices to meet every exigency, he has a carefully prepared and exact outline for every study for every year from the first primary to the high school, and never fails to know exactly what to do. We could send our students out with a particular method, or rather device, for every study and an exact outline to go with it, and tell them exactly how to teach each subject,—but if we used our two short years in the normal school in that way, what a narrow, stereotyped set of people we would send out,—what a lock step system of education we would inaugurate,—what limited individual thought, and therefore what complete stagnation, educationally, would follow!

My contention then is, that if we wish to prepare teachers of history, the first essential will be to give as many and as thorough courses in history as can possibly be given in the limited time at our disposal, with a fair allotment of time to the study of primary history and methods.

In the first place, higher requirements for admission to normal schools should be made. For years the universities have inspected high schools and fixed requirements by dictating courses and equipment or by standardizing the scope of entrance examination requirements. The normal schools have to a very large degree neglected this field. The Regents of the Wisconsin Normal School System adopted last June a rule that students who have not taken in an accredited four year high school, twelve weeks each of arithmetic, grammar, and geography, one half year each of biology, physics, and civics, and one year each of European

* Read before the History Teachers' Section of the American Historical Association at Buffalo, 1911.

and American history, shall be required to take such subjects in the normal school as additional work, lengthening their courses to the extent necessary to cover all such work. The new stipulations in regard to American history and civics, go into effect next September, a part of the rest the next year, and the remainder the following year. In the past we have been continually receiving pupils very inadequately prepared in history as well as in some other branches, and occasionally, a student who has graduated from a high school without having taken any history whatever. As our new rule comes into operation, it will certainly make a great difference in the work of the Wisconsin normal schools. Rules of this character are in force in some of the states, and should be in force in all. What a monstrous thing for a normal school to be obliged to receive students unprepared, or nearly so, in such an essential branch as history, and after a brief two years' work, in which the student's time and attention are shared by all the courses in the curriculum, turn him out with a diploma qualifying him to teach any subject in any grade, from the first primary through the high school.

If legal restrictions can be made at the beginning of the course, so ought they to be made at the end of a course. There should be a law requiring four years' work beyond the high school before any student is allowed to teach in a high school. The universities and colleges and normal colleges would certainly be in favor of such a law and if the normal schools joined forces with them there would be little question of the success of the proposition. The normal schools can never expect to get credit for scholarly standards as long as they look complacently on, while students leave their two year courses to teach in the high schools.

So far in our normal schools very little serious attempt has been made to fit our normal school courses to exactly the sort of work that a student expects to do. Some differentiation has been made, but not nearly enough. If students enroll according to their preferences in teaching into high school, grammar, intermediate and primary groups, much real differentiation can be made in the courses offered. A course for primary teachers need not have as much history, geography, chemistry, mathematics, etc., as one designed for high school or grammar grade teachers.

A fair requirement in history for a primary course, for a student who has had good history courses in the high school with a year of American history in the last year of his course, which has come to be the standard in Wisconsin, would be a half year's work in American history in a class meeting five times a week. Such a course should be largely social and industrial, not by any means highly technical, and on the social side should be largely biographical. The work should be based on a carefully prepared syllabus and be mainly reference work and class discussion. No text-book can give the stories and social conditions necessary for primary work in history. In order that the student may be able to handle the necessary reference work in the Committee of Eight outline, he must have thorough training in gaining this material from a large reference work and in making it over so that it may be presented to children. Topical recitations are essential to train the student in freedom in expressing himself; and emphasis should be placed on story-telling.

Somewhere in the normal school course training in story telling should be carried on systematically and if no one else does it then the history teacher must, for all primary history courses must consist largely of story telling and the dramatization of the stories. For years I have made the main professional work for primary teachers of history consist of observation lessons in which I tell stories to the children and lead them to dramatize the stories while the training class looks on. There never has been time enough to train the students in telling stories; but it is easy to show

them the value of it in teaching children, and when they see how easy it is and how interesting, many of them go out to try it on the children they teach. It seems to me that this is an essential part of a normal school history course for primary teachers, and if the normal school teacher of history does not feel qualified to tell stories to children he should secure help from some one who is qualified, and so bring the matter home to the students. One showing is worth a week's lecturing on the value of story telling in teaching primary history.

Normal school history teachers are inclined often to think only of the upper grades when training students, but I believe that a foundation for an interest in history may be laid in the very lowest grades, and that history stories form in many ways better educational material for little children, than much of the nature work that is given, the fairy stories, or that never-failing refuge for the inefficient teacher that used to be generalized under the head of "busy work." The primary and intermediate grades are the formative ones, and children who learn to love the history story will soon call for the history book, and if this taste is cultivated by intelligent teachers not even text-book drill at the hand of an eighth grade teacher not interested in history can destroy all their delight in the study of the doings of men.

The course for the intermediate grades need not be essentially different from the primary course. Story telling is as essential and the work, following the Committee of Eight, is still American history. For the grammar grades, however, beginning with the sixth grade, great differentiation should be made. It seems to me that the very least history requirement for a student who expects to teach in the grammar grades would be three courses, two of twenty weeks each and one of thirty weeks. With students classified into the departments in which they are expecting to teach, it seems to me that it is entirely practical to give these courses without detriment to the other work expected of the pupils. If the entrance requirements are such as have been indicated above, then a very fair amount of preparation will be assured. When the grammar grades have been departmentalized, as they should be, certainly, this specialization can be carried still farther.

I would give the two twenty weeks' courses to English and Modern European history and the thirty week's course to American history and methods. The English history should be given first as a background for American history and institutions, social, religious, and political. Not much time should be given to the period before the Conquest, and from then to the reign of Henry VII, the course should follow briefly three main lines—the church, the government, and the social-economic conditions as influenced by the characteristic forces of the Middle Ages. From Henry VII on, there should be far more intensive study of the development of institutions; Parliament, the religious struggle, intellectual and industrial development, with the struggle for the control of the government by the nation. These threads should be followed through the Revolution of 1688. Only the one main line of the development of the cabinet government and the supremacy of Parliament need be studied from 1688 to the reign of George III, where much stress must be laid on the state of Parliamentary government and lack of civil liberty, to give a proper setting for the conditions that gave rise to the American Revolution. Less time should be given to the Napoleonic period, as that can best be considered in connection with the course in Modern European history. Much attention should be paid to the great industrial changes of this period and their social effects. The reform of Parliament, the free trade movement and England's Colonial Empire should be treated as separate topics and given large consideration. The general democratic movement in England since the Reform Bill should

be treated in connection with the general democratic movement in Europe as a whole. I believe that such a course as this would give a student a fair background for handling English history in its relations to American history as given in the outline of the Committee of Eight.

The Modern European history course should begin about the time of Richelieu and should cover the ground in somewhat the same fashion as the course in English history, leaving out enough so that the essential factors should have definite and decisive treatment. I think that by far the greatest part of the course should be given to the time from the causes of the French Revolution to the present. The French Revolution should be treated so as to emphasize the causes that brought it on, and the results that were accomplished, and not for the particular events—events occurring during its continuance. I mean that there is no excuse for having our students finish their study of this period with the Reign of Terror in their minds as the most important thing about the whole movement. Napoleon's campaigns should fade away in the memory of the political and social conditions that made their success possible and should be remembered only in the far-reaching results that they brought about. The later period of European history is most interesting to us from the formation of the modern nations and from the democratic and industrial movements, which should be studied as special topics. I am not trying to name the particular events that should be, or should not be taught, but am only hinting at the *nature* of the topics that should be taken up to furnish the student with a proper background not only for teaching American history but for further study of the development of Europe as he realizes the limitations of his knowledge after he begins teaching.

The course in American history should follow three lines, political, social and economic. Political history is necessary to show the development of our institutions, to show the great part that individual influence and finesse have played on our history. It is also necessary that the constitutional history of the country may be understood. Great stress should be laid on the social and economic sides, but I have not gone over, horse and foot, to the idea that our school work in history should be mainly industrial. To students of the freshman and sophomore grade whom we are handling, the personal element appeals very strongly and the children whom they are to teach must have the personal element as a large factor in their instruction, and I believe that this may be brought out more strongly in the political and social topics than in the industrial. Biography will greatly aid in this and we are blessed now with a profusion of most excellent biographical material.

Since the main teaching the student is to do is in the field of American history, and since it is admitted that we cannot cover the whole field of American history in thirty weeks, it might seem that more time should be devoted to American history and less to European. I believe that reasons can be given for the course as recommended. In the first place, the students know much more about our history than they do of the history of Europe. They were taught American history in the grammar grades and as a rule no other history there at all. In our western high schools, at least, it is coming to be a regular thing to require the students to take in the last year of their course a year of American history, which makes a very good foundation for the normal school work. Again, our history is much less complicated and much shorter than the history of the European countries. We have in a large measure, inherited our institutions from Europe and in these latter years we are again coming into close contact with European

politics, we are vitally interested in European affairs in a way not true since the close of the War of 1812, and we cannot tell when another adjustment of European affairs may lead us into complications before unheard of. Certainly, in our cities our students need a large understanding of European civilization and government in order to teach sympathetically and understandingly the children of recent immigrants who swarm in our public schools.

We are noted for our provincialism. The average American citizen looks upon Europe as even now undergoing the throes of final dissolution, as a country where vice and ignorance and oppression and corruption are rampant, and where an effete and useless aristocracy is squeezing the life blood from the people. On the other hand, he believes that America is the one country where enlightenment rules and where there is freedom to the individual. If we are ever to have a different view and a wider vision of the world's progress the teachers must inaugurate the movement and they never can do that until they themselves have some knowledge of the truth of things.

I have said nothing in this paper in regard to the very obvious necessity of teaching geography throughout all the history courses. I say "throughout" advisedly, for I think that often the teacher gives a general survey of the geographical conditions of his problem at the beginning of the course and then scarcely ever refers to the matter again. Nearly all the high school text-books treat the geographical side in this way, which is, I believe a, great mistake.

I believe that five weeks of the course in American history may reasonably be given to methods. Methods of questioning, assignment of lessons, the various phases of the study, recitation, the relation between geography and history, black board work, the use of pictures and maps should all have been so thoroughly fixed in the student's mind by the regular class work, that there should be need for nothing more than incidental reference to these subjects during the work in methods except as the attention of the class is called to the use of these arts during the observation work.

Story telling, juvenile history books and observation work in the grades, followed by critical discussions should take up the major part of the five weeks devoted specifically to methods. The work with the children should be done by the normal school teacher of history, when he is capable of handling children, for he knows best what his theories of teaching history to children are, and, incidentally, it is the best way to find that some of his most cherished theories will not work. I think it is a serious question whether or not a teacher is qualified to tell students how to teach history to children if he cannot teach children himself. I believe that for practical purposes, observation work is worth more than all the rest of the "methods" put together.

I have wished this paper to be a protest against that tendency of the normal and other professional schools to place so great an emphasis on method that they slight the more important matter, the material that should be taught. In closing I would summarize as follows; the emphasis must be placed on history of the right sort and not on methods; that much more history must be given than in the past, and may be given by a proper differentiation in courses so that fairly adequate preparation on the scholastic side may be afforded, even in a two years' course, especially if entrance requirements are made as they should be; and that methods should form a part of every-day teaching to be supplemented at the close of the student's course with a minimum of time given to the special work before the children that could not be given in the regular class.

The Critical Attitude

HOW TO DEVELOP IT IN STUDENTS.

By Rayner W. Kelsey, Ph.D., Haverford College, Penna.

"Historical science, whatever may be said, is not a science of observation at all. . . . The document is his (the historian's) starting point, the fact is his goal. Between this starting point and this goal he has to pass through a complicated series of inferences, closely interwoven with each other, in which there are innumerable chances of error; while the least error, whether committed at the beginning, middle, or end of the work, may vitiate all his conclusions. The 'historical,' or indirect, method is thus obviously inferior to the method of direct observation; but the historians have no choice." (Langlois and Seignobos, "Introduction to the Study of History," 64-65).

In addition to the statement of the eminent French scholars, it may be said that almost the same problem confronts the high school or college student in his use of text-books and general histories. Indeed, any historian, except in his special field, must base his knowledge of history upon the findings of others. Hence the "least error" committed by others "may vitiate all his conclusions."

It is not altogether bad that it is so. Not all valuable training is in the exact and the inductive sciences. There is a real gain from the fact that far off events cannot be drawn nearer by forty inch telescopes, that minute details and intricate situations cannot be tried out with laboratory apparatus, that historical conclusions cannot be based upon axioms and postulates. The fact that many conclusions of the specialist and of the general student of history must be based upon incomplete or unsatisfactory evidence makes the training of the historian a most valuable asset in practical life. For most of the problems of every day life, the judgments of men and events and social conditions, in business or professional or social life, are not unlike the problems of the historian. The inadequate evidence at hand calls for a refined critical attitude, slowness of judgment, conservatism of conclusion.

Among high school and college students the critical attitude may be measurably developed by teaching them clearly to distinguish between scholarly and popular histories and carefully to watch in all histories for contradictions, loose statements, or exaggerated conclusions.

The special object of this writing is to point out some instances where standard histories and text-books disagree. The exercise for students in examining and resolving such cases is obvious.

It will be noted that not all the instances cited below represent absolute errors, and that some of the contradictions are only apparent. Yet most of them may well serve to encourage the careful examination and comparison of authorities on the part of the student.

"Richard could have felt no grief at the death of his father, and he made no show of any." "Richard . . . shed bitter tears when he heard of Henry's miserable end." (Adams "Political Hist. of Eng." 1066-1216, 359. Tout, "Advanced Hist. of Great Britain," 131).

"The queen and Earl Richard . . . gathered a Great Council (1254), to which, for the first time, representative knights, four from each shire, were summoned."—"Representatives of all the shires were joined together in a single assembly, . . . this was first done, so far as we know,

under John in 1213." "The year 1254 then is the first date at which the royal writs direct the election and attendance in parliament of two knights from each shire." Note the variety of contradictions. (Gardiner, Student's Hist. of Eng., 196. Tout, "Advanced Hist. of Great Britain," 173. Stubbs, "Constitutional Hist.," section 214. Cf. documents of 1213 and 1254 in Adams and Stephens, "Select Documents.")

"The king sent out writs to all the sheriffs, ordering them to send to St. Albans . . . the reeve and four legal men from each township of the royal domains."—"John . . . summoned four men from each county to meet at St. Albans."—"The King sent letters to all the sheriffs . . . ordering them to send four liege men from each town in their demesnes, together with the warden, to St. Albans." (Adams, "Pol. Hist. of Eng." 1066-1216, 427. Gardiner, "Student's Hist.," 180. Adams and Stephens, "Select Docs." 26. Cf. "Amer. Hist. Rev.," 17 (1911-1912) : 12-16. "He (King Alfred) died in 899."—"He . . . died in 900 A. D."—"In 901 Aelfred died." (Text-books of Tout, Cheyney, Gardiner).

"Another treaty, negotiated 1807, was rejected by the Senate."—"Jefferson did not send the document (treaty of 1807) to the Senate for its consideration." (Coman, "Industrial History," ed. 1905, 171. Channing, "Jeffersonian System," 205).

"It was not till April 2, (1789) that the House had a quorum and began to transact business."—"Thirty made a quorum, and a quorum being present in the city, the House, on the morning of the thirtieth of March, took possession of its rooms in Federal Hall and organized." (Bassett, "Federalist System," 7-8. McMaster, "Hist. of the People of the U. S.," 1: 534).

"At last, on the fifth of January, the (Hartford) convention adjourned."—"The convention adjourned on January 15, 1815." (McMaster, "History," 4: 250. Babcock, "Rise of American Nationality," 162).

"The charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut were demanded for annulment (1686). The former colony was, as usual, obedient, and yielded up her charter."—"The Rhode Islanders did not give up their charter, but otherwise they yielded to the royal wish." (Thwaites, "Colonies," 175. Channing, "United States," 2: 176).

"Much devastation was wrought and blood spilled, until in 1697 the treaty of Ryswick put an end to the trouble, and left the [Hudson's Bay] Company in undisputed possession." "Until the treaty of Utrecht (1713), nearly every season witnessed picturesque armed contests between French and English upon the dreary shores of Hudson Bay." (Thwaites, Colonies, 244. Thwaites, France in America, 47).

The writer would not give the impression by the foregoing observations that it is a good thing to have faulty texts in order to cultivate the student's critical sense. On the contrary he feels that somewhere in our historical publications there should be room for as thorough a reviewing of text-books as of monographs and larger histories. Yet at the best it takes time to clear away the errors of detail in a text.

In the meantime it is pleasing to see the avidity with which students take up the hunt for mistakes and over statements. Several of the above points were first called to the attention of the writer by students who had discovered them in their library work.

The larger number of such errors or contradictions are of minor details to be sure. Yet just in the minor details must the historian be on his guard. Just there may lurk the error that "may vitiate all his conclusions." Just in cultivating accuracy of detail may the specialist and the general student whet their critical senses to the finest edge.—an edge that will cut many a Gordian knot of practical daily problems.

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WHAT CAN BE ACCOMPLISHED?

In these days of multifarious organizations, when a man or woman of public spirit is deluged with invitations to join the membership and contribute to the funds of numerous societies, a good reason must be shown for the creation of any new form of association. We have joined societies for the promotion of agriculture, for the study of geography, and for the care of the child; we are members of social clubs, of local historical societies, of political organizations; we are busily at work in teachers' associations, in peace societies, and in various social or political reform organizations. Ought we to inflict upon the busy teacher of history any more of these duties? Is there any place in our lives for associations of history teachers? To such questions a decided yes! can be given.

The success which has attended so many of these local and national associations formed for professional and reform purposes is a conclusive argument in favor of the collaboration of history teachers for the promotion of the interests of their profession. No single movement will do more to dignify the teaching of history, or raise the standing of the teacher of history in the eyes of school books, superintendents, and the community in general, than the successful inception and management of history teachers' associations.

Abundant productive fields lie open before the history teachers' association. Not only will the personal contact increase the efficiency of the teachers, and improve their professional standing, but many forms of creative activity may be entered upon. The work in the past decade of the New England History Teachers' Association is an excellent illustration of the existence of such possibilities. In addition to the publication of its annual reports, committees of this association have issued many valuable aids to the teaching of history. They have published a syllabus for high school history courses, which has been made the basis of the work in many schools outside of New England, as well as within its limits, and notably in the state of New York. They prepared a similar syllabus for the study of civil government, and are now at work upon one for economics in the high school. A valuable pamphlet—now, unhappily, out of print—contained references to available source-material for secondary school work. Recently a committee prepared and exhibited in permanent form, a collection of aids to the teaching of history, publishing through THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, a detailed catalogue of the collection. Very recently the association has undertaken to publish a series of pictures illustrative of certain periods of history.

Other associations have been almost as productive. The Middle States Association has stood sponsor for the Bibliography of History for Schools, prepared by Prof. Andrews, Mr. Gambrill and Miss Tall. The North Central Association (now the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association) has for several years published an annual bibliography of history; and a committee is now acting with local history teachers' associations in the preparation of a series of syllabi of state history.

Much remains to be done by local societies in productive fields as well as in strengthening the *esprit de corps* of the body of history teachers. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE will gladly act as the organ of such associations, printing notices and accounts of meetings and publishing their more important papers. The action of the American Historical Association makes possible a reduced subscription rate to every member of every history teachers' association. Can we not make the year 1912 memorable in the world of history teaching by a marked increase in the number of such societies, and by many additions to the membership of the older associations?

History in the Secondary School

Some Suggestions on the Reformation

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Its Connection with the Renaissance.

Most historians agree in looking upon the Reformation as an outgrowth of the Renaissance movement. The connection between the two is so close that it is difficult to separate them; the one may almost be considered as a phase of the other. In the discussion of these earlier manifestations of individual consciousness, the instructor must constantly be looking forward to the final catastrophe in the great upheaval which followed Luther's attack upon indulgences. In fact, the Protestant revolt was but the climax of that series of events which brought the medieval period to a close, and marked the dawn of a new era. It was the final application of the two great principles of the Renaissance to the domain of religion—"the appeal to the original sources and the right of individual investigation." It was a much more violent change than any which had preceded it because of the greater resisting power of the institution which was attacked—the Christian Church. "Endowed with large wealth, strong in numbers in every State, with no lack of able and thoroughly trained minds, its interests, as it regarded them, in maintaining the old were enormous, and its power of defending itself seemed scarcely to be broken." (Adams, page 422.)

The Reformation the Beginning of Modern History.

In approaching the subject of the Reformation, the instructor should not only be guided by the fact of the close relationship between this movement and the Renaissance, but he should also be mindful of its wider significance as a great world movement. It was the posting of these ninety-five theses on the door of the Wittenberg church on October 31st, 1517, rather than the fall of Constantinople in 1453, or the discovery of America in 1492 which marked the beginning of modern history. "This event," says Jaeger, "was to dominate succeeding centuries until the present time, and to determine the life of individuals and of European nations" (page 173). Professor Adams also voices this idea, emphasizing at the same time the continuity of the two movements: "In the connection established with the Reformation is to be found one of the ways in which the Renaissance movement became an important force in the other great movements of the time, and passed into the general revolution—social, political and religious—with which modern history opened" (page 384). Dr. Jaeger proceeds to hold a very interesting brief on the question of the significance of the posting of the theses as compared with the events which took place in 1453 and in 1492.

The Teacher's Attitude toward Questions of Creed.

Another important preliminary consideration for the teacher is the question of what should be his attitude toward a struggle of this character, so much of which hinged on matters of creed and dogma. Dr. Jaeger lays down in admirable fashion some general laws which may be considered applicable to situations of this character. Starting with the premise that we are teaching history, not theology, he proceeds to demonstrate the possibility of treating these events in such a way as not to offend the most delicate sensibilities, and at the same time to inculcate the great moral lessons which may be involved. The teacher is in every case to tell the truth, that is to avoid implanting false ideas, but is at the same time to "say no more than the pupil can understand—no more than is or can become the truth to him" (page 170). This great German scholar and teacher not only shows himself an adherent of that school of historians who hold that it is the business of the historian merely to ascertain "wie es eigentlich gewesen ist," but hints at a higher duty which the secondary teacher is expected to perform in inspiring the students under his charge with a spirit of fairness, a love for the truth, and an admiration for those noble qualities of mind and heart which know no bounds of creed or tongue.

Planning the Lesson for the Student.

Whatever may be the teacher's attitude toward the topical method of assigning history lessons, he should not be content, as were the teachers of a past generation, merely to assign so many

pages or paragraphs in the text-book. The very indefiniteness of history—which, by the way, has been characterized as one of its most attractive features—makes it imperative that the instructor should formulate a very definite study plan for the student. These plans are often criticized on the ground that they lead to a cut-and-dried method of class presentation. This danger, if such it is, may readily be avoided if the teacher looks upon the lesson scheme as simply a means of securing data. This material may be utilized in the class room in any way which may commend itself to the instructor. In other words, he should feel perfectly free to deviate from the letter of the plan so long as he calls for nothing which has not been impressed upon the student's mind by a careful perusal of the lesson scheme. If our students could be brought to the point where they would look upon history as suggesting so many definite problems for solution rather than so many items to be memorized, their interest in the subject would be materially increased, and they would come to the recitation with better preparation. This result may be secured by assigning the lesson as a series of questions. These should be closely related and should all focus about some central thought, clearly formulated in the mind of the instructor, toward which he proposes to direct the individual recitations. (See HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. I, page 156.)

This method may be illustrated by applying it to the beginnings of the Reformation. We will suppose that the teacher has decided to formulate the central idea in those words of Beard which refer to the timeliness of the movement, rounding out the thought as given by the biographer, and expanding it into the following statement: "The time was ripe for change; the seed was cast into the ground at the right moment" by a man especially fitted for the great task—the monk, Martin Luther. A few thoughtful questions should then be framed in such a way as to enable the student readily to gather together the essential material on that part of the Reformation which falls between 1517 and 1521, when Charles V interfered to secure a settlement of the controversy. These would be on the order of the following:

- I. How did the Renaissance prepare the way for church reform?
- II. What conditions in Germany favored church reform?
- III. How did Luther's early life fit him for the work of a reformer?
- IV. What prompted Luther to attack the church? How did this attack differ, if at all, from earlier criticisms of the church?
- V. What were the great crises or turning points in Luther's life up to the Diet of Worms, and how did they affect the progress of the Reformation?
- VI. What was there about this reform movement which made it so much more significant and far-reaching than earlier movements?

Care should be exercised in directing the student to all the material to be found in the text-book. If the instructor expects to take up the earlier reform movements in any detail, e.g., the Albigensian, Waldensian, or Hussite, as suggested by Adams (pages 417-420), it might be well to ask for a review of these pages in the text-book.

It is not necessary that the instructor should call up these questions in the form or in the order in which they have been assigned. He should make it clear to the class beforehand that they are to serve merely as a guide, pointing the way to the acquisition of such information as the student should have at his command. The discussion might be precipitated by as simple a question as "What was the Reformation?" The answers to this question will suggest others apropos of the central theme from which the discussion should not be permitted to wander.

Literature.

An excellent topical analysis of the part played by Luther is to be found in O. H. Richardson, "Syllabus of Continental European

History," Lecture XLIV. The topics prepared for the syllabus of the New England History Teacher's Association are less detailed. The connection between the Renaissance and the Reformation is emphasized in Adams, "Civilization During the Middle Ages," chapters XV and XVII. The chapter on the Reformation (XVII) is particularly stimulating and helpful in its treatment of the larger aspects of the movement. This may also be said of the account in Seebohm, "Protestant Revolt." It might be possible for the

teacher to utilize the maps found there by reproducing them on a larger scale, particularly those on pages 105, 161 and 164. The standard lives of Luther are by Beard and Koestlin. Reference might also be made to the accounts in Lodge, "Close of the Middle Ages" (pages 532-533), and Johnson, "Europe in the Sixteenth Century" (pages 148-160), which discuss the influence of the Renaissance on the Reformation and Luther's indebtedness thereto.

A Series of Lessons on the Development of the English Cabinet Government

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., DEWITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

The Method of Developing These Lessons.

The prime fact in the political history of Great Britain during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is the growth of cabinet government. This, therefore, is the core about which the teacher should develop every lesson in political history during the period beginning with the reign of Charles II, and ending with the reign of George III. Many teachers are puzzled by the question as to what is the proper method to be used in review. We have all found that the old style review which waits till the end of a period of history and then attempts to restate all the facts without adding any new material is dry, and fails, in most cases, to accomplish its purpose. Review work, to be effective, should be carried on constantly. No recitation is complete unless it forces the pupil to restate some of the facts learned in previous lessons. To teachers who do not know the book, we recommend in this connection, McMurry's "Method of Recitation," where, especially in chapters VI and IX; they will find much illuminating material on this subject.

Of all topics in English history, the history of cabinet government offers, perhaps, the best opportunity to use this method. The history of the Civil War and the Commonwealth has been finished. The teacher is now ready to take up the story of modern English history. Each lesson will add something to the story of the development of cabinet government; each lesson will force the student to review what he already knows. Before the first lesson begins, the teacher should therefore have clearly in mind the goal which he intends to reach in his last lesson—a clear understanding on the part of his pupils of the modern system of English government. Not that the teacher should announce this goal to his classes—to do so would be to violate the primary rule of pedagogics; that children should never be forced to accept facts which are unrelated to their apperceptive mass. But in the mind of the teacher this goal should be constantly present, and each lesson, beginning with the facts that the pupil already knows, should add something to the story of the development of this modern system of government.

1. The English cabinet, like every other vital English institution, is the result of slow, almost unconscious growth. Its roots are to be found in institutions as old as the Privy Council and the group of king's favorites.

2. The cabinet, as such, has no legal authority—its functions are accomplished by recourse to a series of legal fictions.

3. The cabinet consists of a group of ten or fifteen of the king's principal ministers.

4. These ministers, in theory, hold office by appointment from the king and are responsible for their actions to him—in fact, the House of Commons indirectly designates them, and they are responsible for their actions to the majority party. As a result there has grown up in England a perfect system of party government.

5. The whole group of ministers is bound to act together. Each one is bound to support and defend the actions of his colleagues; each one is bound to subordinate his will and his actions, to the veto of his fellows.

6. At the head of the cabinet stands a prime minister, an officer unknown to the law, yet with definite functions recognized by the English constitution.

First Lessons to be Given in Connection with the History of Charles II.

With these six propositions clearly in mind, the teacher is ready to begin his lessons on modern English political history. First, he must review the story of the relations between the king and his ministers, the king and parliament, during the sixteenth and early seventeenth century. Here he must bring out the fact that the king's ministers acted entirely under the royal orders, that they

owed nothing to their colleagues, that their policy was dictated entirely by their personal predilections and by the desires of the king, that the will of parliament was in no way effective in checking their actions. It was these facts that ultimately led to the Civil War.

Even in the beginning of the reign of Charles II, these propositions were still largely true except that, as a result of the Civil War, the king was forced to recognize his responsibility to parliament. Still Charles II never ceased to plot and scheme to avoid this responsibility. In the early years of his reign he used the Earl of Clarendon in order to resist the growing encroachments of parliament upon the prerogatives of the crown. Ultimately Clarendon fell from favor, was impeached by the House of Commons, and found refuge from conviction in France.

Thereafter, Charles exercised his royal rights through a group of five ministers, the Cabal. These ministers were in no way responsible to each other. Each of them acted directly under orders from the king, each followed his individual policy; no joint meetings were held, no general policy evolved. One by one they were dismissed or resigned as they ceased to be useful to Charles in his dealings with parliament. To Charles his ministers were an easy means of shifting responsibility from his own shoulders. When he had led them into proposals which failed to suit the temper of parliament he dismissed them and appointed other scapegoats in their place. This group of ministers resembles the modern cabinet in one particular only—by consulting with them and getting them to validate his acts, the king avoided the necessity of calling together his entire Privy Council. Since these ministers were members of the Privy Council and since no specified quorum was necessary in the Council the king could act with them as well as with the entire body.

By the end of Charles II's reign, though the king did not acknowledge that parliament had any right to interfere with him in the choice of his ministers, yet, by dismissing ministers who had lost their popularity, he practically recognized that the ministers of the crown were responsible to the law-making body as well as to the king.

In the reign of Charles II, too, we have the beginnings of party government. Before the Restoration, the meetings of parliament had been sporadic. From 1660 on, parliament met regularly. Before the Restoration, during the time of James I and Charles I, members of parliament had taken sides and voted together only on particular specific questions; but such grouping was temporary and lacked all the machinery connected with modern party government. In the reign of Charles II, when the king and parliament were quarreling over the Exclusion Bill, we begin to get the first evidences of regularly organized political parties.

As yet there is no relation between the growing responsibility of the king's ministers to parliament and these new political parties, but as time goes on the inevitable is bound to happen: the king's ministers, who are responsible to parliament will become responsible to the dominant political party in the House of Commons.

Further Developments in Connection with Lessons on William III.

James II attempted to reassert and to act upon the principles which had governed his father, Charles I, in his dealings with parliament. The Revolution of 1688 resulted. William III's sole claim to the throne rested upon the action of parliament. From the beginnings of his reign he recognized the fact that his actions would be limited by the will of parliament, that his dealings with parliament must be conducted through the agency of his ministers. As first he attempted to ignore the existence of political parties and selected his ministers from among the prominent men of both sides. Before long, however, he recognized that this led to con-

fusion and constant quarreling and consequently, in 1694, he dismissed all his Tory ministers and replaced them by members of the dominant Whig party. Thus for the first time we have as a clearly recognized principle the fact that the ministry must all belong to the party in majority in the House of Commons.

Charles II had consulted his ministers individually. Often he acted against their advice; sometimes without their knowledge. William began the practice of consulting his principal ministers—the lesser ones were not called into council—in a body. These consultations were regularly held in the king's private cabinet, hence the name—Cabinet Meetings. This was an inevitable step: if the ministers were to share their responsibility in common, they must all know in common the action which the king proposed to take, and so, before the end of William's reign it had become an accepted principle that the King's principal ministers would share in common the responsibility for royal actions.

Throughout his reign, William III insisted that his opinion should have preponderating weight in the cabinet meetings. Queen Anne, too, a Tory by predilection, attempted to enforce this rule. But Anne failed—against her wishes the Whigs came into power

in 1705, and the Queen was forced to sink her preferences in the deliberations of her cabinet. Thus the action of the body becomes independent of the will of the sovereign and by indirection, the principle that their action is controlled by the will of the dominant party in the House of Commons is established.

Two more facts remain to be added. Up to the accession of George I, the sovereign regularly was present and took part in cabinet discussions; in consequence, no single minister ever obtained a preponderating influence in its deliberation. Owing to conditions with which every teacher is familiar, George I soon ceased to attend cabinet meetings; instead he entrusted the leadership to one of his ministers and thus there grew up the last condition which completes the modern system of government in England; viz., (1) that the king no longer takes part in cabinet meetings, and (2) that one of the ministers is recognized as the Prime Minister.

George III, as we know, attempted to destroy the solidarity of the cabinet system, attempted once more to force his personal will upon parliament; but George III failed, and since then England has recognized the cabinet system as an essential part of its constitution.

Some Practical Suggestions on the Teaching of the Growth of United States Territory

BY FRANK H. MILLER, FLUSHING HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

Within the limits of this article I shall attempt nothing erudite or exceptional. I do not flatter myself that there is anything particularly unique in my method. Probably the devices which I use are much the same as those used by hundred of other teachers.

I shall deal here only with the methods which I use in teaching the growth of territory on the American Continent; as to the insular possessions, they belong naturally to a different set of lessons which must come much later in the term.

To my mind, an essential principle of good history teaching is that each lesson should emphasize one broad topic and subordinate everything else in the lesson to this end. This applies especially to the lessons on the acquisition of territory, as the teacher has more faults to contend with here than almost anywhere else in the text-book. With this end in view, I spend at least two recitations on the growth of territory in connection with the Mexican War, having passed over this topic very briefly at earlier periods. At this time I expect to round up the following topics:

I. The map, showing just what land was acquired at each session.

II. The treaties by which these lands were acquired.

III. How the territories were governed.

IV. The settlement and growth of the West, with the political and economic results.

1. The most important question for the teacher is how much of this should have been taught before he comes to the Mexican War. In saying that these topics should be subordinated in earlier lessons, I do not mean to say that they should have been altogether omitted. In teaching the French and Indian War, for instance, I have two maps drawn in the note books,—one showing the possession of the English in 1750, the other showing the results of the war. Again after the Revolutionary War is finished, another map is drawn showing the United States as it was in 1783, giving the claims of the States to the western territory. In this map the northwest territory is especially prominent and across the entire western territory the pupils write, "*ceded to the United States in 1781.*" This is the last map which the students draw until we get to the Mexican War; but in connection with the Louisiana Purchase we indicate carefully on the wall map the territory which was acquired, bringing out the acquisition of West Florida in this connection. At the same time we develop the fact that the United States *did not* get Texas and Oregon by this purchase. Thus the map work of the pupil on the territory west of the Mississippi is deferred to the time when he can make it complete.

With the Mexican cessions we are ready to draw a complete map of the United States. I prefer to have this map made in colors. A colored map of his own is just as helpful to a pupil as a colored map in a book is to an adult. Furthermore, the pupil takes an interest in a colored map which he has made, which he does not take in filling in a mere outline. I frequently have the colors put in during the recitation period, distributing crayons for this purpose. All that I have to say in favor of this somewhat elementary exercise is that the results seem to justify it.

II. Now as to the second topic,—the treaties by which the territory was acquired. These I deal with as they appear in the text-book, but they are thoroughly reviewed when we come to study finally the topic *Foreign Relations*. We do not study them directly under the topic, *Growth of Territory*.

III. The government of territories is treated chiefly when we are considering the Northwest Ordinance, of which the pupils are required to make an abstract in their note books, and again in the lessons on Civics where the Government under the Northwest Ordinance is compared with the present administration of insular dependencies.

IV. The political results of the acquisition of territory are emphasized chiefly in connection with the lessons on the western land cessions of the States, and in connection with the Louisiana Purchase. Here it is especially important to show the effect of the acquisition of territory upon the interpretation of the Constitution:

1. By forcing Jefferson and his party to accept a liberal construction of the Constitution.

2. By increasing the power of the Central Government in giving it vast tracts of land to govern directly and an immense amount of public land to dispose of.

3. By providing for new States which have been created by the Central Government, and hence were not influenced by the State sovereignty ideas which were so prevalent in the original States.

The settlement of this western territory and the economic results can best be dealt with by having a group of topics assigned for library work. These topics are presented in class, notes are taken by the pupils, and all are held responsible in a test for the main points in every topic presented. These are the topics which I am using at present, but they can, of course, be varied according to the library facilities:

1. Boone in Kentucky—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*, Vol. I.
2. George Rogers Clark's Conquest of the Northwest—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*, Vol. I.
3. The Men of the West—Roosevelt's *Winning of the West*.
4. Resources of the West—Bullock's *Economics*.
5. Life in the West—Parkman's *Oregon Trail*.
6. Government of Territories in the Early Period—Willoughby's *Territories and Dependencies*, pp. 27-47.
7. Mark Twain's—*Life on the Mississippi*, selected chapters.

As to the division of time on this work, I assign the map of the United States as indicated above as one lesson. While these maps are being checked up the topics are being recited. The topics have been assigned some two weeks before and represent more work than is required for an ordinary lesson. After checking up the maps, they are criticised and attention is called to any errors. The next day the reports on topics are completed and a test is given if time permits. This test is usually postponed, however, till the time of the regular hour test in which I usually include one question on the map, two on the topics given in class, and one on the treaties.

I prefer to leave the map work on slavery until the Civil War is reached. Then a map is drawn, showing the Mason and Dixon Line, the Missouri Compromise Line, and the territory opened to slavery by the Compromise of 1850, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act. On this map, too, are indicated the States in which slavery was tinued after the Emancipation Proclamation.

To sum up, the growth of territory should be emphasized in various connections, the stress being laid on government in connection legal in 1861, those which seceded and those in which slavery con- with the Northwest Ordinance, on political influence in connection with the Louisiana Purchase, and the treaties and map work in dealing with the results of the Mexican War.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES

Mrs. A. Lealie Walker, Vassar '06, recently spoke to the History department and the Hellenic Society on her work in excavating in Greece.

There has been published as Senate document No. 122, 62d. Congress, 2d. session, an address delivered before the Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina, at Raleigh, on The Constitution, and Its Makers, by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge. The address deals especially with the initiative, referendum and the recall.

A text-book on Economics by Dr. Henry R. Burch, head of the department of history and economics, Central Manual Training School, Philadelphia, will shortly be published by the MacMillan Company.

Miss Elizabeth Rowell of the Broadway High School, Seattle, Washington, is on a year's leave of absence.

Dr. Arthur C. Howland has been made Professor of Mediaeval History in the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton has been appointed head of the department of history in the new Central High School, Newark, N. J.

Prof. Edward P. Cheyney, of the University of Pennsylvania, sailed on February 19, for a six-months' European visit.

Prof. George L. Burr, of Cornell University, started early this year upon a trip to Italy and Greece.

Dr. I. J. Cox, of the University of Cincinnati, is spending the scholastic year 1911-12, at the University of Pennsylvania.

Mr. Albert Cook Myers returned in December, from England, where he made much progress in the collection and arrangement of material for his edition of the works of William Penn.

The Trenton (N. J.) Conference of history teachers held its annual session at the State Normal School, on Saturday, February 17. The program included an exhibition of students' work and aids in history teaching; a report by Miss Sarah A. Dynes upon "Plans of the American Historical Association for improving the quality of history teaching in the grades"; the annual address, entitled "The Dead Past and the Living Present," by Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Princeton University; and a general discussion opened by Prof. Paul Van Dyke. Over forty members of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, are within the territory of the Trenton Conference.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The Council has voted to hold the annual Spring Meeting in Springfield, Mass., on Friday and Saturday, April 19-20, and a committee consisting of Dr. Jessie M. Law, Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle, and the secretary, was appointed to make local arrangements. There will be an address on Friday evening, which will be open to the public. On Saturday morning the Association will discuss the question: The Relation of the Social Sciences to Community Affairs. The usual luncheon for members and their guests will follow the morning session. The Association held its first meeting outside of Boston several years ago in Springfield.

The Council voted to contribute to the support of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

Encouraging reports are received from the sub-committee on the publication of the historical pictures, and several new series are contemplated.

NEBRASKA ASSOCIATION.

The Nebraska Association met at Omaha on November 9, 1911, as a part of the State Teachers' Association. The papers were good, and the discussion spirited from start to finish. Superintendent Whitehead of Gothenburg discussed "The Minimum Time and Equipment for Teaching History in Elementary Schools that are Adjuncts of Accredited High Schools." He pointed out the great problem teachers are still wrestling with How teach history right and at the same time fit the students to pass an examination for the teachers' certificate, in the time assigned.

Prof. C. E. Persinger of the University of Nebraska, presented a report on a course of study in history for the grades. A comparative study was made of his suggested course and several others. A lively discussion followed.

The principal address of the afternoon was given by Dr. Fred Morrow Fling on "How May the Nebraska History Teachers' Association Best Contribute Aid to Improve History Teaching in Elementary and Secondary Schools." As a result of this address, several movements for better results were started, the chief one being a plan for a meeting of the Association, unattached to any other meeting, sometime in April.

The new officers are President, Mrs. Ada I. Atkinson, Omaha; Secretary-treasurer, Mattie Cook Ellis, Penn.

A Local History Club at the State Normal School, Kearney, Neb., is doing valuable work in collecting and studying material for a history of Nebraska. The work is in charge of Professor C. N. Anderson, head of the department of history and economics.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

For the convenience of its readers and to stimulate the work of organization, "The Magazine" will print from time to time, a list of the associations, with the names and addresses of the secretaries. Will our readers help us fill in the gaps, and keep us informed of changes in the secretarial offices?

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Leland, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., secretary.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.—H. W. Edwards, Berkeley, secretary.

CALIFORNIA.—Maude Stevens, Palo Alto High School, secretary. COLORADO.—Prof. James S. Willard, chairman, Boulder, Col.

INDIANA.—Professor Harriet Palmer, Franklin, secretary.

KANSAS.—J. Raymond G. Taylor, Manhattan, secretary.

MARYLAND.—Ella V. Ricker, 700 Carrollton Avenue, Baltimore, secretary.

MIDDLE STATES.—Prof. Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, New York City, secretary.

MILWAUKEE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

MISSISSIPPI.—H. L. McCleskey, Hazelhurst, secretary.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, TEACHERS' SECTION.—Howard C. Hill, Oak Park, Ill., secretary.

MISSOURI.—Professor Eugene Fair, Kirksville, secretary.

NEBRASKA.—Professor C. N. Anderson, Kearney, president.

NEW ENGLAND.—Mr. W. H. Cushing, South Framingham, Mass., N. J., secretary.

NEW YORK (N. Y.) CONFERENCE.—Moses Weld Ware, Morristown,

NORTH DAKOTA ASSOCIATION.—H. L. Rockwood, Enderlin, president.

SEATTLE CONFERENCE.—Informally organized.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Prof. Carl Christophelsmeir, Vermillion, president.

TRENTON, (N. J.) CONFERENCE.—Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, secretary.

TWIN CITY HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Adelaide Underhill, Poughkeepsie, secretary.

WASHINGTON (STATE) HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Prof. L. T. Jackson, Washington State College, chairman.

WISCONSIN.—Prof. Arthur D. S. Gillett, Superior, secretary.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Professor Tout presided at the annual conference of the Historical Association in Manchester, England. During the discussion on the question of the teaching of history in elementary schools, a resolution was moved to the effect that the first charge on the time of elementary schools should be a course of historical instruction suffi-

cient to give children as clear an idea as possible of the growth and nature of the British state, and of their rights and duties as citizens.

The mover of the resolution, Mr. Adkins, explained that the school course, for older children covered the whole of English history, and that in order to meet the needs of those children who moved from school to school a universal syllabus should be adopted.

History, the speaker maintained, should be at least as coherent as geography; the best way, perhaps, of making history coherent was to seek out its economic basis. Modern questions, he maintained, should be studied on the lines of their historic development, and the larger views of history required to make British history intelligible might be given in connection with Scripture lessons.

A discussion ensued, during which the majority of the speakers expressed their approval of the motion. One speaker declared that enthusiasm for history was growing in elementary schools, but he maintained that it should not take precedence of reading, writing and arithmetic, and he proposed an amendment to this effect, but it was defeated by a large majority.

Professor Leonard explained how frequently it had been proposed that steps should be taken for teaching history to working men and that not only in clubs and adult classes, but that the universities themselves should take the matter up. He declared that the time had come when "we should realize as an association that we must deal with these questions of teaching history to workmen." The professor referred, also, amid considerable laughter, to the necessity of teaching history to journalists.

THE AMERICAN JEWISH HISTORICAL SOCIETY.

The 20th annual meeting of the American Jewish Historical Society was held in Boston, February 11-13. Large audiences were in attendance and numerous interesting papers were read, among which may be mentioned a Note on the Jewish Vestry Bill of Barbados, by Dr. Friedenwald, and Early Jewish Residents in Massachusetts, by Lee M. Friedman, of Boston. In the latter paper the speaker told of the first Jewish cemetery in the city started in 1733, upon the site now occupied by the building at 15-17 Chamber street. The first Jew known in Boston was Isaac Abraham, who in 1684 came to Boston and sold a vessel.

This was the first meeting of the association in Boston since its organization.

POLITICAL EDUCATIONAL LEAGUE.

There has been organized in New York City a movement for the practical study of political activities and machinery. The work is under the direction of Mr. S. Gerschauck, of the New York Public Library, Forty-second Street and Fifth Avenue. The following description gives the purposes and methods of the league: The Political Educational League has been organized for the purpose of instructing young men in the theoretical and practical activities of our city, state and national government. Secondly, to study the science of government. Thirdly, to develop good citizenship.

I. The Branch Club will meet on the second and fourth Saturdays of the month as a modelled Board of Aldermen. At such meetings, rules, regulations and ordinances within the scope of the Board as indicated by the city's charter will be proposed, discussed and acted upon as the result of the study, reading and observation as given below. This will give each member training and experience in parliamentary procedure, practice in debate and develop the power of extemporaneous speaking.

II. Each member will be appointed as the head of one of the various departments as mentioned in the charter, viz.: mayor, police commissioner, fire commissioner, etc. Each member in his official capacity will devote such time as he may have to the following task; first, study the duties and powers of his office; secondly, to investigate the character of the office; thirdly to study and read all the works and articles pertaining to his office or field of work; fourthly, to observe the exercise of his office, by visiting the city official of which he is the type; lastly, to render reports of suggestions for improvements in the work of his office. At each meeting, only two or three reports will be rendered, this will in routine give each member from four to six months time to prepare his paper.

III. At each meeting one of two classes of topics will be assigned for general discussion; the former, specific phases of municipal activities; e. g., fire prevention, subway situation, municipal sanitation, etc., the latter, new theories of political science; e. g., "Short Ballot," "Commission Form of Government," "Referendum," etc. In addition to these general discussions and papers,

leading men, either city official in the former case, or prominent exponent of the movement in the latter case, will be invited to give short talks on their respective fields, followed by questions.

IV. At frequent intervals, primaries and conventions will be held, composed of all the members of all the clubs established as delegates, at which conventions platforms will be made and such other duties performed as at the national conventions.

V. In the preparation of papers, briefs and reports, the personal assistance of the director will be given to each member, who will also guide in the preparation of bibliographies and in the use of books, magazines and source materials at the various branches and at the Main Library of the New York Public Library and at the university libraries.

THE TRENTON CONFERENCE.

The Trenton Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held its regular meeting on Saturday afternoon, February 17th, at the State Normal School.

The meeting was the largest of any that has yet been held. There were 150 persons present. The membership is a little less than half that number. An opportunity was given the members to examine the latest books suitable for grades 1 to 8 inclusive, written work of pupils in grades 6, 7 and 8, as well as desk books for teachers and teachers' plans and outlines for conducting work in grades below the 6th. All the teachers seemed to appreciate the privilege and utilized the hour before and the hour after the formal program in such inspection.

The speaker of the afternoon was Professor Frank A. Fetter, Professor of Economics at Princeton University. The subject of his address was "The Dead Past and the Living Present." In his opening remarks he stated that economists were indebted to history to a greater degree than to any other of the sister subjects.

In a few masterly sentences he sketched the history of the early schools of economists and then proceeded to outline the character of work done by the Younger Historical School of Economists. The indebtedness of this later school to history was clearly and forcibly described and illustrated. That neither subject could be understood without a knowledge of the other was emphasized. He made a plea for a more intimate knowledge of economics on the part of teachers of history so that the dead past may not remain dead, and added that economists who are unfamiliar with the past cannot understand the living present. The address was pleasing, suggestive, stimulating and scholarly.

In the discussion that followed Professor Paul van Dyke, of Princeton University, expressed his agreement with the views held by Professor Fetter, and added that to his mind the fundamental difference between an educated and an uneducated man is that the former has a reverence for existing institutions because he knows what they have cost and the other never realizes their worth. He regretted that some of our politicians really seem to believe that a man's action is always determined by self-interest. They cannot understand the motive force of the ideals which a man cherishes.

Dr. James M. Green, principal of the State Normal School at Trenton made a plea for simplicity and concreteness in teaching history and expressed his appreciation of the strong, helpful paper of Professor Fetter. The Executive Committee of this Conference is composed of Dr. E. Mackey, City Superintendent of Schools of Trenton (chairman), Professor Paul van Dyke, of Princeton University and Sarah A. Dyers, of the department of history in the New Jersey State Normal School of Trenton (secretary).

KANSAS HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

At the meeting of the History and Sociology Round Table of the State Teachers' Association in Topeka, November 10, 1911, the organization of the Kansas History Teachers' Association begun the year before was completed, a constitution adopted and officers elected for 1912 as follows: President, Professor Frank H. Hodder, Lawrence, Kan.; vice-president, J. B. Hitt, Everest, Kan.; secretary-treasurer, Raymond G. Taylor, Manhattan, Kan. One meeting is to be held annually in connection with the meetings of the State Teachers' Association, and a second meeting may be held in the spring subject to call by the Executive Committee, which is composed of the above-named officers.

At this November meeting the following papers were read and discussed: "The History Recitation," Professor Carl Becker, of the University of Kansas; "The Use of Facts in History Teaching," W. S. Robb, Superintendent of Eureka, Kansas, schools; "The Study of Industrial History," Raymond G. Taylor of the State Agricultural College.

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, Ph.D., EDITOR.

Conducted with the co-operation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, Cal.)

—Annual Report of the American Historical Association for the Year 1909: Writings on American History, 1909, by Grace G. Griffin. This may also be secured separately.

—In the Bookman for January, James Schouler considers "President Johnson and Posterity," or what will be the final verdict upon his career.

—In the American Journal of International Law for October, Amos S. Hershey presents a necessarily summary view of "The History of International Relations during Antiquity and the Middle Ages."

—In Harper's Weekly (January 13) Gaillard Hunt discusses "Our Troublesome Treaty with Russia." To show the intent of the treaty he gives the history of the negotiations with Russia from 1783 to its formation in 1832, inclining to take the view that it was made for commercial purposes only. Tracing its application and interpretation, he concludes that Russia to-day cannot justly be charged with violating its provisions.

—In the William and Mary College Quarterly for October, is printed a portion of the Diary of Edmund Ruffin minutely describing the attack on Fort Sumter, at which he claims to have fired the first shot. Mr. Ruffin, the editor tells us, was a native of Virginia, but "When he found that Virginia would not secede, he exercised the right of expatriation, removed from that State and became 'a citizen of the seceded Confederate States.'"

—"A Reading Journey through South America" is a continued article in the Chautauqua, written in conjunction with the Pan American Union by Harry Weston Van Dyke. The January number deals with Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia. Montevideo, unimportant until thirty years ago, is now a modern city of 400,000 inhabitants. Paraguay, until 1873 was kept isolated from the world by its despotic rulers and as a result is undeveloped. Bolivia has the distinction of being the highest inhabited land on the earth, with the possible exception of Tibet. From one mountain near Potosi four billions dollars worth of silver has been taken since 1545.

—The general advance of the countries of South America is reflected in an article in the Harper's Weekly for January 27, by John A. Mathews upon the restoration of the credit of Columbia by President Restrepo.

—"The History of Gold Mining in the United States" (Popular Science Monthly, February), by Professor R. A. F. Penrose, Jr., contains many suggestive points for the historical student, such as the fear of the Mission Fathers that the disclosure of the presence of gold would cause a repetition of the old Mexican and Peruvian scenes of cruelty to their charges; also, the resort to mining by the victims of the panics of 1857, 1893, and 1907, and of the discharged soldiers of the Civil War.

—The continued paper on 'The Constitutional Movement in Prussia from 1840 to 1847' (P. Devinat, Revue Historique, Jan.-Feb.) is this time devoted to Public Opinion before the Publication of the Ordinances of 1847, the social problem, religious agitation, political opposition. Under the discussion of the social problem we note the tropical treatment of the miserable condition of the laborers in a time of great industrial prosperity—"living upon potatoes and salt,"—the workmen's revolts of 1843-1844,—the formation of societies for the amelioration of their condition, the development of socialistic thought, the formation of secret societies to resist governmental repression.

After an analysis of some "Famous autobiographies," namely those of Cellini, Rousseau, Gibbon, Goethe, Mill and Spencer, the writer in the Edinburgh Review for October reaches various interesting conclusions. He believes their greatness was not due to ambition or to force of will, but was rather due to living their natural lives at periods peculiarly responsive to their influence. Furthermore, that there is no necessary connection between genius and morality, but rather that genius is "closely connected with unconventionality, or even with eccentricity."

—The publication of "British Correspondence concerning Texas," under the editorship of Professor E. D. Adams, begun in the January issue of the Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association, will run through several numbers. A few documents date from as early as 1837, but the bulk of them relate to the period after 1840, when England actively showed its approval of the application of Texas for recognition. They relate to the political, social and industrial conditions of the period.

—The Cossacks arose, according to Mme. Jartintzoff (Fortnightly Review, January, The Past of the Russian Cossacks) as the natural outcome of Polish religious persecutions, Turkish raids, and Russians, some Poles, some men from the minor Slavonic tribes, even some Tartars. They called themselves "Kossaki," a Tartar word meaning free men, free warriors, or guards, which can be traced back to the eleventh century. At first their personal feelings and requirements made them provide for themselves and guard their own liberty only. . . . Getting stronger and stronger, and more and more numerous through the influx of newcomers, the Kossaki became in reality the only fighting force that kept back the Tartars. . . ."

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ALLEN, CHARLES FLETCHER. David Crockett. Scout, Small Boy, Pilgrim, Mountaineer, Soldier, Bear-hunter, and Congressman. The defender of the Alamo. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott. Pp. 308. \$1.50.

This is a very comprehensive title for a book written in a rambling and unattractive style and attempting nothing more serious than a wordy account of the every-day happenings in the life of David Crockett. The author follows him pertinaciously from the day he is born until he is lying dead under the walls of the Alamo, but all the while the reader feels that the author has no more than a journalistic grasp of his subject.

The casual reader might peruse the whole book with no conception of the significance of the period as far as any help from the author is concerned.

On the other hand, there are numerous good stories of Crockett's hunting adventures, many of which are given in Crockett's own words—taken from his autobiography. Many boys will gladly read the book for the stories, but it cannot be taken seriously as an historical work.

Carl E. Pray.

SKEAT, WALTER W. The Past at Our Doors. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. x, 198. 50c.

There is a larger and richer field of opportunity than many appreciate in the chance to stimulate the interest of the student of history by pointing out to him the many ways in which his every-day present is under obligation to the past, even to that which seems unprofitably far away. Mr. Skeat has concerned himself mostly with origins not more remote than in medieval times, and under the captions—"The Story of Our Food," "The Story of Our Dress," "The Story of Our Homes"—has turned up some of the "deep soil of common usage" and uncovered interesting facts. Thus he illustrates the blending of the elements in the history of the English people by calling attention to the Saxon origin of the words "ox," "sheep," "calf," "pig," and "fowl," which the Saxon peasant raised, and the Norman origin of "beef," "mutton," "veal," "pork," "bacon" and "poultry," which the Norman butcher handled. Again, he points out that "corn," "oats," "rye," "wheat," "barley," "peas," "beans," "sow," "reap," "thresh," "mow," "spade," "scythe," "rake," and "furrow," are all Saxon words and by their origin prove that the Normans, as a race, stood aloof in England from field work, which they left to the Saxon peasantry.

On the whole the book has much more suggestiveness for the English reader than for the American, as very many of the survivals which the author explains do not obtain in this country; yet, for teachers whose attention has not been attracted already to this phase of history by such stimulating books as Trench's "On the Study of Words," and Wright's "The Homes of Other Days," Skeat's little book will have value.

Wayland J. Chase.

SHEPHERD, WM. R. Historical Atlas. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xi, 216. 94. \$2.50.

The first impression that the reviewer of this volume gets is of its wide scope and comprehensiveness. Here are more than 200 pages of map plates and 94 pages of index, containing 3 columns to the page. Every recognized field of history is covered and provision is made for the needs of the student of America, as well as of European history, with their wide-flung world connections. Moreover, this has been done with great detail and fullness. Thus with more than 100 small maps of less than one half page size, and more than 70 of about one-half page each, there are more than 60 full page maps, 37 of two pages each, and 2 of four pages. The variety of cartographic material is surprising, including as it does, not only very many maps of small geographic areas, but also city plans of Jerusalem ancient and medieval, Rome imperial and medieval, Athens, Olympia, Constantinople, London in 1300, Paris and Versailles in 1789, and full page plans of a medieval monastery and a medieval manor. The scheme of colors is such as to produce generally a clearness of location and demarcation: and this is further effected by giving sufficient space to those maps which need to be made on a large scale. The advantageous device is frequently employed of placing a unit of area, such as the state of Illinois, upon the margin of the pages used to display an especially extensive region. The physical, as well as the political, features of historical

geography are duly emphasized. This is but a partial list of the excellent features which make it the most comprehensive historical atlas printed in English. It is a very serviceable tool for the high school student.

Wayland J. Chase.

PERKINS, JAMES BRECK. France in the American Revolution. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. xix, 544. \$2.00

Mr. Perkins' long study and writings in French history make him peculiarly well-qualified for this work. His knowledge of France, and feeling for her, does not in any way interfere with his staunch American spirit, but enables him to judge fairly, with a keen appreciation of the position of both sides. It seems as though the author realized his place as arbiter between conflicting parties, for he has done more careful work in this, his latest book, than in his earlier works on French history, good as they are.

Yet, his style does not deteriorate through carefulness of statement. There is not quite the lightness of touch found in his purely French histories, but the same graceful style, set off with a subtle humor that pervades every chapter without asserting itself unduly, is in evidence throughout the whole work. The book deals with the personal element very largely and every character moves in the pages as a real human being with a personality of his own,—there are no lay figures in Perkins' books.

There are large guarantees for this history from the fact that Professor Jameson read the manuscript and Professor Van Tyne verified the references. The introduction is by the French Ambassador, M. Jusserand, who emphasizes very forcibly the point that France helped America largely because the French people were enthusiastic for the cause of liberty and not primarily for revenge on England.

From a book so filled with good things attractively written it is difficult to make selections for especial mention in so short a review. The adroit and persevering diplomacy of Vergennes; the devoted loyalty of Beaumarchais who was determined to believe that the American States would be grateful for help in their time of need and would pay him for money and supplies when they were able to do so; the meddlesome indiscretions of Arthur Lee; the almost preternatural finesse and wisdom of Franklin who always got what no one else could from the French government and more than any other government ever gave under similar circumstances; the naivete of the American privateers in the French ports who demanded everything and usually got it; La Fayette's services and loyalty to Washington; *French Cash!*; and the treaty, concerning which the author takes direct and positive issue with the suspicions and jealousies of John Adams and John Jay and asserts with proofs that Vergennes and the French government were as true to the American cause as when they first signed the treaty of alliance.

The book is a most valuable one for every high school library and for every college library, for that matter, and will be read by the general public as well, with enthusiasm.

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No Mummified History in New York Schools*

BY ANDREW S. DRAPER, LL.B., LL.D., COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The last legislature did the inevitable thing and made the office of the State Historian a division in the Education Department. It went further and created a division in the Department to supervise the manner in which all public records of the State and of the counties, cities, and towns thereof are made and cared for. Of course, these plans articulate together and are expected to conserve, and cherish, and magnify our history. They are expected to make the vital history of the country, and particularly of the State, available to all the people in attractive and realistic forms. One of the early expressions of the movement ought to appear in quickening and improving the teaching of history in the schools.

There is no state with a more resplendent history than New York. The story of the first settlements, of the progress of pioneer farming, of the dealings and conflicts with the Indians, of the upbuilding of our commerce and manufactures, of the development of our religious and political institutions, of the old roads which foreshadowed the newer and greater ones, of the habits and customs of early generations which have influenced the doings of the present generation, of the deadly battles fought and the political policies established by our fathers which settled the characters of the State and nation, is an inheritance which is not exceeded by that of any people in the world. All of this splendid story can not be understood by the children in the schools, for that requires long lives and mature minds, but we may have the satisfaction of knowing that if we teach little parts of it so children become really interested in them, they will go on and learn about other parts without other helps than such as they will find on their own account. The story truly told is so fascinating that it is irresistible.

The point of this little paper is not so much to extend the courses in history as it is to make the teaching vital and the history irresistible.

There are now two quite distinct schools of history writers and teachers. One of these, which we may call the old school, assumes that one who has participated in great events and can write well, can write the history of those events. It assumes that one who had no actual part in the events but is an educated man and an accomplished writer, may qualify himself for writing the history of them by reading all that others have written about them, by searching out old documents bearing upon them which have escaped the earlier writers, and by going over the grounds where the events occurred, occupying the point of view and entering into the feelings of the actors, and working himself into a frame of mind which will express the story as the original participants in the events might if they could speak.

The other and newer school is the rather natural outgrowth of the universities. It occupies the critical attitude

of the universities. It is more destructive than creative. It is more professional and pedantic than original and inspiring. Its work is done in the study rather than by fiction is in calling down some old hero because he told a story with a little too much enthusiasm. It assumes that having had a part in the events, and having actual sympathy with one side or the other in those events, disqualifies from writing about them. It even assumes that no one has any business to write history unless he has been trained by the professors of history in the universities to question everything and to have no actual feeling about any historical fact. It pretends to treat judicially matters which are wholly outside of and apart from judicial interpretation. It makes more of mummies than of life. Let us illustrate. A professor of history at Dartmouth College, if he were a disciple of this school, might write what he would call a judicial history of the battle of Gettysburg. He would disregard the motives and ignore the enthusiasms of the contending armies. He would say that the partisanship which would lead a man to offer his life to his country would make him unable to appreciate the accepted canons of historical criticism or understand the underlying principles of historical documentation. He would deal only with generalities, i.e. the written orders, the generals, the divisions and army corps, the grand movements, the figures and the result; and to make sure that no one would think him prejudiced, or any more interested in one side than the other, he would very likely leave it to the reader to come to his own conclusions about it all, just as a circuit judge leaves it to a jury to decide what the facts are when the evidence is circumstantial and conflicting and he is not himself sure of what happened. He could tell us that the battle of Gettysburg was fought on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, July 1st, 2nd, and 3rd, in 1863; that the weather was probably hot; that there were 201,817 men engaged; that they marched 33 1-4 miles the day before the battle, and that 41,714 were killed; and that all this was the unnecessary consequence of something that our fathers mistakenly let slip into the Constitution on a Saturday or a Sunday in October, 1789. It would be as interesting to boys and girls and their fathers and mothers as a railway track or a tow of canal boats when they had seen hundreds of them.

That *might* happen. I do not believe it would, for I do not believe Dartmouth would stand for it long. It is all speculation. Now let us see something that *did* happen. In 1854 a fine young fellow by the name of Frank Haskell graduated from Dartmouth College. He was born in Vermont, taught school to get the money to go to college, and was late in getting through, for he was twenty-six. But he quickly made up for his delayed college course. He was a classical scholar, intent upon work, ready for a frolic and not afraid of a fight. He played square with the world, formed opinions and had unusual gifts in narrating facts and expressing himself. He went to Madison, Wisconsin, studied law, gained admission to the bar, and was soon in

*Address delivered before the History Teachers Section of the New York State Teachers Association, at the Senate Chamber, Capitol, Albany, Tuesday Morning, November 28, 1911.

successful practice and a citizen who was regarded and respected. At the opening of the Civil War he enlisted in the Sixth Wisconsin regiment and soon gained a reputation as a sagacious and daring soldier. He was a mounted aide to General Gibbon at Gettysburg, and carried orders and information to far points on the field. Such a young man in such a place made the most of his unparalleled opportunities for seeing and doing things. He messed with the generals and mixed with the men, and freely offered his life to his country by doing whatever he could find to do, without regard to peril, that would help her in her crucial hour. He was wounded enough to put most men out of commission for a month, and he had two horses shot under him, but he never let go of his job. He was among the first to see the advance of Pickett's division for the grand charge on the afternoon of the third day. He rode along the crest looking for the weakest place in the Union lines. The Confederates had looked for it also. He found the thinnest ranks where Webb's brigade was in a moment to meet the fiercest onset at the "bloody angle." He looked for Hancock and Gibbon, but they had both been wounded. He looked for anybody with authority to give the orders which would mend the break. Finding no one, he flew about and gave the orders himself just as though all the stripes and stars in the army were upon or behind him. He rushed a couple of fairly fresh regiments into the breach, and when the blow fell he was right there to help them meet it. They met it so well that they lost half their number, but what was left gathered in four thousand prisoners. Meade and Hancock and Gibbon and the Congress said that he had done as much as, if not more than, any other one man for the triumph of the Union arms at Gettysburg. He was only a lieutenant. It made him a colonel at once.

In the next thirty days he wrote a full account of the battle from first to last. He had no thought of writing for publication. He wrote what fills a book. Without any self-laudation he told his young brother at home what he saw and heard, how he felt and what he did, what the officers and men did and said. He dealt with men and things and events in particular. He described movements and incidents so that the reader thrills and shivers. He expressed his feelings with the ardor and freedom of youth. He gave credit with a generous hand and without regard to rank, and he handed out criticism in the same way. For example, he said that Hooker was a "scoundrel," which he was not; that Sickles was only a "political general" seeking popularity when he moved the third corps to the other ridge, which was putting it too strong; and that the eleventh corps was a "pack of cowards," which was probably overstating the matter. But all came hot "off the bat" of a gentleman, a scholar, and a soldier, who had been all over the field and knew and could tell what had happened and how it had happened. The excitement of the battle doubtless gave him some opinions which he would have modified in later years if he had lived, but all the same he wrote actual history. That makes his story of Gettysburg very real; and he consecrated it all by giving his life to his country when leading his new regiment at Cold Harbor the next summer.

I am with Professor Mahaffy, of Dublin, when he says "Unless we have living men reproduced with their passions and the logic of their feeling, we have no real human history." I am with Gibbon, who believed that history must be rich in imagination and not wanting in eloquence. I am for Fronde with his inaccuracies, rather than with any other who avoids positive statements and reduces human interest in the subject to the vanishing point. I am with Parkman who went over the ground and mixed with people who knew or had heard. I am with Lord Macaulay, when in his history of England before the Restoration he says that he will cheerfully bear the reproach of having descended

below the dignity of history if he can succeed in placing before the English of the nineteenth century a true picture of the life of their ancestors.

No one is for ignoring or straining the truth of history. Honest and intelligent imagination that adheres to essential facts, but takes the loves and hates of actual men and women into account, comes nearer the truth than does the pessimist who rejects everything but positive evidence, necessarily misinterprets much of that, and insists that partisans are hardly capable of giving evidence at all.

One who helped make history, if he has the other accomplishments, can write it better than those who had no part in making it; and no one can hope to write history well unless he can put himself in spirit and sympathy with those who made it. He must have their point of view, their enthusiasm, and their grief or exultation over results, before he can make it very effective in the lives of human beings. Even those who are not in sympathy with the writer prefer the writings of one who has feeling in his theme, rather than of one who takes pride in his remoteness and indifference. The Confederate veterans would rather read the story by Colonel Haskell of what happened on the Union side at Gettysburg, and the Union veterans, that by General Pickett, of what happened on the Confederate side, than any story by an historical philosopher who was not there and who tries to write judicially, when the whole thing was one of arms and had gone beyond the possibilities of judicial determination.

The thing we are speaking of is not an exclusive trade at all; it is to be saved from being professionalized; it is far more a matter of knowledge, of intelligent interest and literary accomplishment, than of balancing evidence or of expert training. History consists of facts infused with life rather than of mere opinions. Of course there is such a thing as a philosophy of history, a treatment of causes and effects, a connecting of results and an explaining of consequences, but that is wholly beyond the children in the elementary or secondary schools; and, aside from that, it is in the province of historical or philosophical speculation, and not in the field of historical fact at all.

The same considerations govern the teaching as the writing of history. To be effectively taught it will have to be done by partisans, whose hearts quicken with the teaching and are quickened by it as it progresses. The thing taught will have to be within a compass which pupils can grasp, and it will have to be made so clear, so full of human action and interest, will have to prove in such an orderly and convincing way, that normal children must be enlightened, entertained, and convinced by it.

We have 2,000,000 children in our New York schools. Large numbers of them are the children of parents who are new in the State and know little of the facts and the spirit of our history. We had 1,800,000 souls added to the population of New York State, and 1,300,000 added to the population of New York City, between 1900 and 1910. In other words, the decade's increase alone would make great cities and states as the world goes. And there are vast numbers of children descended from early settlers in the State who know little of the facts and feel little of the inspiration of our history. It is very vital to the State that they shall know these facts and feel this inspiration. No civilization lives unto itself alone. It is a matter of intelligence, of feeling, and of relations and outlook. A civilization treasures what its fathers did for it, and it is urgent about what it aspires to do for its children and their children. Indeed, loyalty to and intelligence about this line of teaching in the homes and in the schools goes farther than anything else to determine the power and the right of a civilization to endure.

The schools of all peoples are expected to attend to the

matter. Frankly, I do not think we attend to it as well as we ought. We are as prodigal of our history as of our lands, and woods, and waters, and children. We need to conserve and care more for all of them. The people need to help the schools to do it better. Recall the books, and statutes, and columns, and arches, and art galleries, and great buildings dedicated to statesmen, and soldiers, and scholars, and artists in Rome and Madrid and Zurich and Berlin and Amsterdam and Paris and Edinburgh and London, and every other city of the Old World. St. Petersburg is so full of them that it is mere display without the discrimination in selecting subjects or that balance between show and understanding which is the vital basis of any patriotism or any civilization that is of much worth. Stockholm, one of the fine cities of the world, goes all lengths in making the display without subjecting herself to any criticism for ignorance or grossness. Her well-made streets and her clean squares express her appreciation of the intellectual and martial history of Sweden. Opposite the palace of the democratic king an art gallery of great merit expresses the history of the nation to a people that is free from the burden of illiteracy. The arts and industries and the intellectual and constitutional evolution of Sweden are all admirably represented. Under the great dome there is the magnificent painting of the military guard bearing home on their shoulders through the deep snows, the body of King Charles XII, killed in battle with the Norwegians after Peter the Great had been brought to his reckoning: as the Swedish women look upon it they flush with indignation and the men clench their fists and renew their oaths of loyalty to the fatherland. A few blocks away is the unparalleled Thorwaldsen collection of marbles known of all who can appreciate the beautiful. And a mile or two away, at Skansen, in the park, are the many structures which hold the products and portray the actual life of Swedish generations, from the mud hut of the barbarians down to the fine city which is the abundant fruitage of the high civilization that has resulted from the ambition, industry, valor and honor of Sweden. And, by the way, the military guards at Skansen are in the buff and blue, the leather breeches and top boots, the great coats and three-cornered hats of Washington's Army, which we must have borrowed from Gustavus Adolphus.

That we have not done these things very largely or always with the best of judgment is not because we are lacking in events to portray or history to teach. The history of Holland and Britain, indeed the history of all intellectual and constitutional progress in all lands, is our inheritance. But we have to go no farther back than the first settlements upon the Hudson River to find both great and picturesque events to illustrate the evolution of the material state, and fascinating stories to quicken the commercial, scholarly, political, and military doings of the people. We are plutocrats in the materials that must touch the pride, quicken the heartbeats, and enlarge the sense of responsibility of every one who is worth his salt and lives upon New York soil.

There is hardly a town in the State that is without its historic episodes and traditions. There is hardly a county that has not a shrine made sacred, not a stream that has not been crimsoned by blood spilt for the rights of man. To say nothing of the names of men, think of what Morningside Heights, and Fort Lee, and Stony Point, and Albany, and Schenectady, and Schoharie, and Cherry Valley, and Wyoming, and Oriskany, and Oswego, and Saratoga, and Fort Edward, and Lake George, and Lake Champlain, and Ticonderoga, and Crown Point, and Plattsburg, and many others, signify in the cause of human opportunity and American nationality. And it is not all a matter of soldiers by any means. We had in every part of this State, at a very early day, as fine a pioneer farming civilization, as successful manufacturing and commercial accomplishments, as the

world has ever seen. We have had as brave and fascinating struggles for the stability of political institutions, as much self-sacrifice for the upbuilding of churches and for their freedom and harmony, as intelligent and generous and abiding a faith in schools, as ever honored the life of any people in the world. It is all in our history, it is expressed in our institutions, and it bears upon our life.

It is our business to see that the children in the New York schools, for their own good and for the country's sake, get their proper share in all this. They are to get the parts of it that they can assimilate, and get it at times and in forms and quantities that will be good for their patriotic health. If they become really concerned about some part of it, they will be about other parts of it. If their love of it begins to grow, it will keep on growing. The generalities, the high points, the speculations, or the philosophy of history, are not of much concern to young people. They want the facts, the action of it. They want the poetry and the glamor of it. They will come to understand something of the reason and the result of it. It is to be hoped that the Division of History in the Education Department and the teachers in the schools will realize their opportunity to serve the State by refusing to have their faith settled by professional critics and by teaching history to the children by realistic picturesque and by inspiring words.

REPORT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORICAL RESEARCH, CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON.

The annual report of Dr. J. Franklin Jameson, director of the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution, of Washington, covering the work for the year 1911, has recently appeared. The report gives a brief account of the work which has been accomplished in the year, and of the plans for the ensuing year. Dr. Jameson reports that Professor Carl R. Fish's "Guide to the Materials for American History in Roman and other Italian Archives," was published during the year, as well as Professor William H. Allison's "Inventory of Unpublished Material for American Religious History in Protestant Church Archives and other Repositories," and Mr. David W. Parker's "Calendar of Papers in Washington Archives relating to the Treaties of the United States." Professor Marion D. Learned's "Guide to the Manuscript Materials relating to American History, in German State Archives," and Professor Herbert E. Bolton's "Guide to the Materials for United States History in Mexican Archives" are well advanced toward publication. "The Guide to the Materials in the British Public Record Office," in course of preparation by Professor C. M. Andrews, will appear in two volumes, the first of which is about ready for the press. "The Inventory of American Material in London Archives," covering the period from 1783-1837 and prepared by Dr. Charles O. Paulin and Professor Frederic L. Paxson, was about ready for the press when the British Government permitted the extension of the archives down to the years 1848, 1850 and 1860, for several classes of papers. In view of this fact, it was deemed best to complete the work of calendaring before publishing the preceding portion. During the year Mr. David W. Parker worked upon his "Guide to the Materials for United States History in Canadian Archives," and Dr. Waldo G. Leland carried almost to completion, his researches in the French Archives. Work has been carried on in the Spanish Archives by Mr. Roscoe R. Hill. Dr. Edmund C. Burnett has continued his work of collecting the letters of delegates to the Continental Congress, relating to its transactions. Miss Davenport has carried her work, "Treaties Bearing upon American History, Concluded by European Powers," nearly down to the time of the Treaty of Westphalia. Mr. Leo Francis Stock in Washington, and Miss Mary T. Martin in London, have been at work upon "American Proceedings and Debates in Parliament to 1783."

The plans for 1912 include the continuation of the studies in foreign archives already begun or in the press. The most important new undertaking is the preliminary steps in the preparation of an atlas of the historical geography of the United States. This work will include much research, not only in the field of political boundaries, but in the hitherto almost unworked field of the geography of political, social, and economic movements.

Letters From a Soldier in The Mexican War*

Source Material for United States History Classes.

CAMP AT MATAMORAS, Dec. 13th 1846

Dear Joseph

I recieved your long lookd for and exceptable letter of the 18th Nov. yesterday at the same time that I recieved one from my brother, and Never was a half starved wretch so Eager to get at the Contents of a well filled dish, as I was to get at the Contents of those two letters. . . I have little news of interest to write to you, as the only news we get here is camp reports, which is not worthy of confidence, there is one paper published in Matamoras which is a real Catchpenny affair, and cannot be relied on for correct information, and the only thing we know what is going on for a certainty is what happens in the immediate Neighborhood of where we happen to be. we have been at Camargo for the last four weeks, expecting to Martch for Monterey daily until the news of the taking of Tampico arrived, when we had orders to start for that place post haste, and acordingly took steamboat down the Rio-grande for the Mouth of the river, having Gen. Patterson and a large number of Officers and men from Monterey some with only one leg and others only one arm, their wounds nearly all heald, and they talking and Joking as lively as any on board, we were five days getting down the river as it is very low at present, stoping every night on our Journey and all hands going ashore to some Mexican Ranche, taking our Music with us, and we never faild in raising a firstrate fandango. the Senorrettas turnd out in good Numbers, and have got over their shyness and like to dance Cottilion verry well, and often kept it up till daybreak, we stopt at Matamoras going down, and left Gen. Patterson and the most of the Cargo, and we proceeded down the river intending to take the sea route for Tampico, we shipd our train and baggage, and we Encampt on shore, waiting for the other vessel to take us off. Next day an order again arrived for us to come back to Matamoras and take the land route for Tampico and are Now Encampt on a fine spot of ground oposite Fort Brown from which the Stars and stripes wave as well as in the City. the weather is Most beautyfull at present although at first when we started up the Rio Grande, it was most scorching hot and dusty, having had no rain for a Month before, and only three times since for 3 or 4 hours at a time, we have been Now in this Country over two months, traveld over one thousand Miles, and out of that only nine on foot, the rest has been nothing but a pleasant Steamboat Excursion up and down the Rio grande and San Juan, when at Camargo we encampt oposite the City on the Texas side of the river which is about two hundred yards wide, and is conected by a rope ferry, a regiment of Ohio Volunteers and the Kentucky Cavalry a thousand strong mounted on fine, able horses and Comanded by Col. Humphrey Marshal, and a Company of which is under the command of Casias M. Clay. and another by Thomas F. Marshal of whom you have no doubt heard, they visited our Camp frequently, the latter always most gloriously drunk, and was carousing about at all hours of the night, sometimes wearing an old three cornered hat after the fashion of 76 with a large black feather stuck in the side of it. we had some rich scenes with him while

there, often when he was about half today'd, he would burst forth in a patriotic speech, verry pleasing to listen to, he is much beloved by his Men, and appears to be on an Equal footing with them and every one else, I have frequently seen Col. Taylor, a brother to old Rough & Ready, and has often been taken for him, being so much like him in appearance and Manners, I have seen a great Many officers who lookd ferocious enough to frighten a Regiment of Mexicans to Death. there are altogether the wildest looking set of Men here among the Volunteers you could Emagine, the most of them have never put a razor to their faces in this country, and beard and Mustaches nearly a foot long and their dress is the most curious you could think of. homespun suits. trimd with red and yellow tape and any quantity of large brass buttons, broad brimd white hats turnd up all around, and look as if they had been worn by their great grandfathers in the revolution, but looks are nothing in this country and when we arrivd here we lookd as if we had just stept out of a bandbox but our boys can now sport whiskers and Mustaches too, and if I could have my likeness taken I would send it to you, as I have followed the fashion too, our Company is treated with respect wherever we go. and, am told that Patterson had Selected us for his bodyguard which I hope is not the case, as he is much too strict, and there is not an Officer in the army so hated as Patterson, the Allabama Volunteers have swore Veangence against him, and if he should get into an action I would not Exchange situations as they would shoot him the first chance they had. the weather now is like spring in the north only a little hotter in the middle of the day, the Moonlight nights are the Most splendid I ever saw. You can make out objects at a great distance, and to be on duty at night as Sentinel with thousands of tents strecht out over the plain laid out as systematic as a chequer board, the Moon shining as bright as day, and all as quite as the grave, then all of a sudden a hundred prairie wolfs would set up one deafening yell, and aproach so close that you could see the white of their Eye, and then not dare to fire your Musket at them, for that would set all the camp in an uproar, and make one liable to be severely dealt with, tis then that I get thinking of home and think that perhaps some friend is watching the same moon as she rolls on her course and thinking of me perhaps, as I am of them, although three thousand miles apart in a distant country, but still I feel proud of my situations we have seen some pretty rough times and hard liveing at first. nothing to Eat but pilot Bread and pork and Coffee. but now we live high, much better than any company in the army, of which a description I hope will be exceptable in the Morning we have fresh bread hot from the bakers, good Coffee, beefsteak or fried bacon, for dinner we have, quite a varieyity, sometimes bean soup, pork or bacon, Sour krout, Mush and Molasses, rice soup and boild rice pudding, pickles and other litle Extras, I must now quite my scribbling, for fear you will get disgusted at my nonsense, forget not to answer this as soon as you recieve it and give me a discription of every thing that transpires at home, as I feel much interested in all that happens in Collegeville. I see by your letter there has been some changes in your neighborhood, and I would like to be there verry much about the time you get this and have some more old fashion sleigh rides and dances. . . .

Your friend,

CHARLES A. VIEREGG.

*EDITOR'S NOTE.—These letters are taken from private family papers. They well illustrate the points which have been made by Dr. Draper in the preceding article.

P. S. when about closing this an order came to march for Victoria on the 20th of this Month with about five thousand Men under Gen. Patterson, where a brush was expected to take place between us and the Enemy under Santa Anna, but how true this is I cannot say. but direct your next letter to me. Corps of Engineers, Army of Occupation

Care of Capt. A. J. Swift

Mexico

C. A. V.

TAMPICO Febu: 6th 1847.

Dear Joseph

I again take the Opportunity of addressing a few lines to you although I have not recieved an answer for my last written at Matamoras before starting on our March you cannot Emagine what hardships and toil we have had to perform on this March of five hundred Miles, we started from Matamoras on the 21st Dec. our force about three thousand strong under the Command of Gen: Patterson Our Company taking the right and acting as Pioneers assisted by two Companys of Volunteers when ocasion required it, the weather was very hot and the water very bad and scarce the first two hundred and fifty miles of our tramp, sometimes it took us a whole day to cross a prairie from twenty to thirty miles across without finding a drop of fresh water, although thousands of wild horses and Cattle were feeding, there are plenty of small lakes which are Salt and one swallow of which would increase the thirst tenfold as some of the train found from experience I have seen men that would willingly give half a dollar for a pint of water, it was a fine sight to see the whole train about five hundred wagons, five mules to each besides all the Cavalry and infantry moving across the plain as far as the Eye could reach, and the wild horses frightend rush passed head and tail in the air, we also saw some flocks of Deer, but shooting was prohibited along the line of March passed severall small towns on our March, at one of which (San Fernando) we passed our New Years Day, and which has a fine rapid stream of excelent water on one side.

in about two weeks we reachd Victoria, which is quite a smart town. every house allmost has Orange trees around it, and on the outskirts there are some splendid groves of oranges Just ripe, and when we first arrived we could buy nearly a bushel for half a Dollar, but after the first day they would charge at the rate of cent & half a piece, there I ate so many Oranges that I got fairly sick of the sight of them—

Gen: Taylor had arrived there the day before us from Monterey with about four thousand regulars. and there for the first time I saw him and nearly all the officers and men who have distinguished themselves in this Country the day after our arrival he rode into our Camp on a Mule accompanied by severall Officers in splendid uniforms and mounted on fine horses. he is a fine looking old chap, rather short and stout, red face and hair slightly grey. I have seen him twenty [times] since and only twice in a dress that would show he was officer, at other times he wore an old grey coat or a white Jacket and a broad brimmd Mexican hat, he is very much liked by the men under his command, and if any of them commit an offence which other officers would punish by some hard duty or confinement, he gets the poor devil by the two ears and gives him a good shaking and cautions him for the next time and then it is all over. the Next to old rough & ready is old Gen: Twiggs, commonly calld the war horse, and he looks and behaves more like a bengal tiger than anything else. he is very large and heavy, with a face as red as a cherry with a very large pair of snow white whiskers forming a Complete Circle around it, and a large bushy head of white hair, he can bawl louder and swear harder than

any ten men put together, but he is a very good old chap when things go on right, and he stopt the whole army in passing through a town, and took our company in a house, and treated us all around. but the best looking and at the same time the wildest looking fellow is Col: May, he is very tall, upwards of six foot and very good shape, his hair of a lightish brown hang down his back nearly to his waist, whiskers six inches below his chin, and Mustaches that cover his Mouth complete he dresses very tasty and rides the finest looking black horse I have ever seen, they say he is the best rider in the army, and what I have seen of his riding satisfied me, a great many young officers follow his fashion in wearing hair long, but none that I have seen could come up to him.

I have seen Gen. Smith. who did great service at Monterey, Capt Mansfield who, when he was wounded in 4 or 5 places was intreated to shelter himself in a house, refused, saying it was not the place for an officer and he stood it out till the place was Capturd.

after staying about ten days at Victoria we started again on our tramp, our Company taking the right as before and the army moving on in the following order, our company and one hundred infantry started first as a Pioneer party, followed the next day by the Division under Twigs, the day after him came Patterson and the day after him by Quitman and Pillow. our party went 18 miles the first day, the road now lay over mountains and we found plenty of good water. the second morning about daybreak, we saw a small party of Mexican Lancers, but they put spurs to their Mustangs and kept out of the way, we had some bridges to build that day and made but ten miles of our Journey, we slept with our pieces loaded at our sides for fear of a surprise from the Lancers. the third day the Division of Twiggs overtook us, but could not advance untill we went ahead, we arrived about ten days ago and Encampt three miles out of town, close where there was a lemon grove, at which we supplied ourselves and I have drank nothing but lemonade since. our company staid there three days, when we got quarters in town, and are now stationd in a fine large building, where formerly they use to hold Masquerade balls.

this is a very fine town. splendid large buildings two large Plazas one paved all over, in the Middle of which a Monument for Santa Anna was comenced, the base is about 5 feet high build of Marble, in the centre of which a large and beautyfull flagstaff has been erected from which the Stars and Strips float triumphantly the Stores are equal to ours at home and the prices reasonable, the Market is suplied with every thing eateable and there are a great many very pretty Spanish and Mexican Senorittas here, who are much more modest and Civilized than any I have seen yet.

I suppose the force here is about fifteen thousand men, and they are arriveing daily from all quarters. none of the Volunteers from Pensilvania have arrived here yet, Gen. Scott is expected here daily. a paper is to be issued to Morrow. they have a theatre here give balls, and everything passes off very pleasantly. as to what is to be done I know not, it is the general impression that Vera Cruz is to be our next destination there was a report that it had been taken, but it was only a camp tale. but I must now close. give my best respects to all my aquentences, and tell them that I am getting on bravely having been promoted one step higher since my last letter, and my pay is now Equal to a first Seargants in the regulars, Sixteen dollars a month and every thing found—fail not to answer my letters as soon as possible and tell me all the particklars of what happens in your Neighbourhood

I Remain your friend

CHARLES A. VIEREGG.

VERA CRUZ, April 1st, 1847.

Dear Joseph.

with pleasure I now take the opportunity of informing you that after many hair breath escapes, from water in the first place on our passage here, & after that from round shot, bomb shell, & Musketry, that I am again permitted to write to you, and that is rather too much for me as I am nearly used up, having been on the constant go for the last three weeks day and night, so that my head is hardly in the right place yet, so you must Excuse all blunders and mistakes I may make in the way of spelling and poor penmanship.

You will no doubt hear of the Glorious Victories that have again been achieved by our army, long before you get this. the Stars & Stripes now float over both town & Castle and are Occupied by our troops, last Monday the 28th was the greatest day of my life, as I witnessed a sight, that will never be forgotten by me, namely, the Evacuation and Surrender of the Mexican force, the Ceremony took place in a large plain outside of the walls of the town.

Our Volunteers were drawn up in line on one side of the plain, the Mexicans march down the middle, and stacked their arms and Equipments, the musical instruments belonging to the army were deposited in a pile, and every thing but personal property was left behind. the Division of Gen: Worth came marching up on the other side with Colours flying, and as much as six splendid bands playing all the National airs, and salutes firing from all the forts and batteries around town.

I have rather commenced my story at the End, as I am not in a fit Condition to write at all, my knapsack serving for a desk, and sitting on the ground, with a shaking bad pen, and paper that I picked up in the Governors Palace in the City:

we sailed from Tampico on the 24th Feb. in a small Schooner. and never did I pass such an unpleasant time. the weather being pretty rough all the time, and our little Craft came near being swallowed up several times.

we stopt about one week at Lobos Island. then started to anchor Lizardo and anchored there about 10 days, waiting for all the force to come up. then took the steamship Edith for Vera Cruz, where we landed on the 9th of March, about two miles from the Castle:

the whole force stated to be about 12 thousand strong. the Division of Gen: Worth (to which our Company was attached) landing first. the Vessels dropping anchor about three quarters of a mile from shore, and the troops embarking in surf boats, there was I suppose about fifty holding from 50 to 100 men each, and were drawn up in line, and at a signal all started for shore as hard as they could pull. our boat landed the third one. great numbers jumping out up to their necks in the surf. it took but a few moments to form our Company's on the beach, and we made one grand rush over the sand hills expecting to find the plain on the other side filled with the Enemy, but not one was to be seen until about three o'clock in the morning, when a party of several hundred came out of town and fired upon us, wounding only one man. but we never returned a shot. at day-break we proceeded on a sand hill in full view of the town and Castle. who fired shot & shell but they fell about a hundred yards short of us.

after that we took several more Excursions towards town getting every day a little closer. the Officers with their instruments and glasses making observations and hunting good places for to put up battery's, and bomb shells, round shot, and grape and Cannister flying about our heads, went so close up one night that we could hear the Sentinels talking and came away without being seen. in about a week after landing the battery's were commenced, employing about a thousand men every night the guns from the Castle and town firing continually but they killed not more than three of our men, one poor fellow was killed not more than ten yards from

me. a piece of a bomb shell struck on the back of the neck, and passed clear through his body. it was the most awful sight I ever saw or ever wish to see again.

in about one week our works were ready to return the fire on them, not a shot having been fired from anything larger than a musket. then a flag of truce was sent in by Gen: Scott asking to surrender the town before he commenced firing. to which they did not agree and on Monday 24th our guns and mortars opened on them, having one battery with 4 thirty two pounders and 2 howitzers, and another battery with 2 thirty-twos, 2 Sixty eight and two paixhan guns & 12 mortars throwing 10 inch shells. which was kept up for 4 days when they offered to surrender the town but not the castle, but Scott wanted both or none, and after a day & half parleying they gave up both. the loss on our side I think will fall short of 20, but on the Enemy's I was told by a Mexican, was upwards of 4 hundred in all. the town appears as if their had been a large fire. piles of brick and Mortar are strewn all about the streets. Several steeples have been knocked down. I have seen places where the bombs would go through three floors and explode in the lower room breaking every thing to smash.

but I must now close having went already much further than I intended, I hope I will soon have the pleasure of telling you Verbally all I have suffered and seen. what our next destination is I know not, but I think the City of Mexico, the weather is getting uncommon hot, and the sooner we get out of this place the better I will like it. give my best respects to all my friends and acquaintances of Collegeville, and my love to all the fair damsels of Musquitta hollow, and fail not to answer my letters as everything that comes from you is very acceptable. Your friend,

CHAS. A. VIEREGG

P. S. I received Just as I finished a letter written on the 14th Feb: in answer to one I sent to you before leaving Matamoras. I wrote one to you after arriving at Tampico, but received no answer yet. Yours,

CHAS. A. VIEREGG

CITY OF MEXICO, Oct. 24th, 1847

Dear Joseph

With Pleasure I avail to the opportunity of directing a few lines to you to inform you that I am still in the land of the living and stout and hearty as usual, hoping this may find you as well both in health and Spirits as I am at present.

Our little Company took an active part in everything that has transpired and been in every fight that has taken place in the Valley of Mexico, and our loss has been pretty severe, considering our Small number, two have been killed, six wounded severely, and three slightly, & some six or Eight used up through hard Duty, and out of Seventy two as hearty young Men as ever handled musket we cannot muster over twenty five fit for duty, I have been highly favoured so far, being unfit for duty only six days since I left home, but I am in hopes it is all over now, I have passed safely through seven well fought battles, and am heartily tired of the cannons roar and Scenes of bloodshed, and the Ever Victorious Stars & Stripes wave from the Palace walls, but our Victory's have cost us dear, and a few more such would certainly cause our defeat, a great many of our best Officers and men have been laid in the dust, but we have succeeded in everything we have undertaken and that against great odds.

I was told by some Citizens here that the Mexican army here before we entered the town was forty three thousand strong and having the advantage of breastworks and battery's at all the streets, while our force did not exceed seven thousand, but nothing can stop a Yankee army when the word is forward, we had fine Sport on the afternoon of the

13th Sept: after storming Chapultepec in the morning and the Enemy that Escaped were driven towards the city, our Company were with Worth's Division and entered at the San Cosme gate, we workd our way through walls and over house tops right in to the Midst of them, they being ignorant of our aproach untill our balls began thinning their ranks from the house tops, when they were off in double quick time, we took one gun and some prisoners from one battery, and made them fire their piece into their own retreating companions, which they aparently did with right good will.

that same night the whole army left town, and on the 14th we Martcht into town without oposition, with the bands playing, and Colours flying, but still some shots were fird at our troops from different parts of the city, killing and wounding some of our men, but for Everyone they killd of ours, six Mexicans had to pay the forfeit, but everything is quite now though some of our men are still assasinated at nights for their money, fifteen hundred robbers & cutthroats were let out from prison the night we entered town and supplied with knives for the purpose of thinning our ranks, then we have other dangers to Encounter that I fear more than Mexican desperadoes, that is the Earthquakes that have taken place the first on the 2nd of Oct: we were eating breakfast at the time, when of a sudden I felt a sickness and dizziness resembling sea sickness, the next moment the house commenced rocking to and fro like a ship at sea. We all made a rush for the street, where a scene met my sight I shall never forget, as far as I could see up and down the street, the people were on their knees in the Midle of the street praying with all the fervour a Mexican knows so well how, the trees in the park close by were bowing their heads to the ground, which rockd so I could scarcely keep my feet, the water in the fountains was splashing over the sides, it was an awfull feeling I can assure you, and such as I never wish to see again, we had another shock the following Monday at 12 o'clock at night, not so severe as the first but rendered more awfull by being at the dead of night.

I was much disapointed in the appearance of this city, the houses are fine it is true, but nothing what I anticipated, the Pallace is large enough to quarter ten thousand troops, but not at all handsome, the Cathedreal is infirior to the one in Pueblo the grand Theatre is the largest and handsomest I ever saw, having five tier of boxes, an American company play there at present, we also have a Circus every night, and bull fighting, every sunday which is verry exciting sport, I can assure you. we have at present two papers publisht in our language, one by W. C. Tobey of Philad.

we have fine times at present, nothing to do but promenade the streets, and smoke the captured Cigars of which we have a good supply on hand. plenty money in our pockets, we live like fighting cocks.

there are a great many foreigners here, Mostly English, French & Germans, Some who came here poor from Philadelphia, are now doing a good business, and getting rich, there has been another battle fought with Santa Anna by Gen: Lane below Pueblo in which Santa was whipt of course, we are expecting a train up every day from Vera Cruz, and in it I hope to find stacks of letters from my friends.

the Mexican Congress has not set yet, and I don't think they will untill we drive their army out of the Country. we have the finest kind of weather at present, but I would willingly exchange it for the more genial clime of Collegeville, I have severall nice trophy's to bring home, one is the sword of Santa Anna AJudent Generall, who I took prisoner the first night we came to town, but I must conclude, please excuse the bad penmanship and dullness of this letter. give my best respects to all friends and aquentences of both sexes: and fail not to write oftener to me, as everything from you is verry exceptable.

Your firm friend,

CHAS. A. VIAREGG.

ENGINEER COLLEGE, Mexico.
Nov. 24th/47.

Dear Joseph,

Your letter dated June 14th I recieved only last Thursday, but however old was verry wellcome, I have sent one to you by the mail that left here on the 1st of this Month, which I suppose you have recieved e'er this, and I have but little of interest to write of this time as we are living as quitely as at home, and as if never a word of dispute had happend between us and our yellow skind neighbors, the City too has assumed quite a home like apearance, the streets are daily throng'd with the fashion and beauty of the place. I suppose they have found out that the Yankees are not alltogether the barbarians and Monsters they were told we was, and that we do not eat them raw without salt, and I can assure you, Joseph that there are some as handsome and tasty little creatures here as can be found in the States, and they dress neater and richer, bonnets is a thing that is seldom seen in this country, and only worn by some few foireign ladies, and I think they look much more charming and attractive, with the Rebosa thrown gracefully over the head and shoulders, and then they have got such coquettish way of opening and arranging it when a good looking chap happens to look at them, I would like to bring some good looking little Senorita home with me, to show some of our northern fair ones how to win beaux, I think I could make quite a Speculation, no doubt the girls would reward me verry liberally for it, but enough of the girls at present for fear of wounding your feelings in a tender spot, and you will give me fits in your next letter, You have given a very true picture of of the feelings and thoughts of many in the battle-field, and I have seen scenes enacted in the Moment of excitement, that would make even the most cruel weep in more cooler moments, but the Mexicans commenced the cruelty's, verry many that were wounded at Molina Del Rey, and as brave and whole sould men as could be found in any station of life were killd and cut up, while lying wounded and helpless on the ground, and before they could be pickd up by our more fortunate fellows, and in Consequence a few days afterwards they were paid off in their own coin at the storming of Chapultepec, where many a poor Mexican was shot through the heart while on his knees begging for life, at one place at the bottom of Chapultepec there is a ditch, and after we drove them from the outworks they ran into this ditch for protection and stood up to their necks in water, and I saw at least fifty shot at that verry place, so furious were our troops at the treatment our wounded recieved a few days previous.

tell me in your next how our Victory's was recieved at home, I suppose it made some little stir, and some few anxious thoughts for those that fell, but I can assure you that I am thankfull that I excaped safely, we see the marks of battle every day in the streets, by the number of both our men & the Mexicans hobling about with legs and arms off, but our wounded are doing verry well now, when we first came into the city for about 2 weeks every day, the sollem dead march was never out of our ears, all that died are buried with the honours of war, quite diferent with the Mexican soldiers, who are rolled in a Mat and carried by two men to his grave.

We have now four newspapers printed in our language, I sent you some by the last mail but it is doubtfull whether you will get them, as I understand the postage has to be prepaid at New Orleans. Our Company is at present undergoing strict instructions in Engineering. we have splendid quarters in the principal street in the City and alltogether live verry well, we have the finest kind of weather at present, neither hot nor cold.

Your friend and c.

CHARLES A. VIAREGG

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History in Teachers' Associations

History has not received the attention, at recent sessions of teachers' associations throughout the country, which it deserves as one of the principal subjects of the elementary and secondary school curricula. It is entitled to as distinct a place in these meetings as arithmetic, geography, or grammar, in the elementary school program; and the classics, English, mathematics, foreign languages, or even the ubiquitous vocational works in the secondary school program.

Why has it not received such recognition? The answer lies partly with those who make up programs for teachers' institutes and association meetings, and partly with the teachers of history themselves. School administrative officials, in whose hands rests usually the making of such programs, are likely to put on the list, topics which concern the subjects to them most important. These administrative officials are accustomed to assign the teaching of history to any unemployed teacher, or to some unoccupied part of the day's routine of studies; and, when it comes to arranging for teachers' meetings they often ignore the subject in which teachers most need encouragement, and in which teachers can get the most assistance from a discussion of up-to-date methods.

But history teachers also are at fault. When the teacher of history, through some fortuitous means, has obtained a grasp of the subject and a satisfactory method of teaching, he, or she, is likely to be content with immediate success in the class-room. Such persons frequently become indifferent to the average teacher of the subject; they refuse to bear their share in dignifying the teaching of their subject. Teachers' institutes and association meetings seem petty and frivolous as compared with their college or graduate school studies. Instead of exerting their energies to improving the associations, they refuse altogether to attend the sessions. Yet, with the insistent demand for vocational and agricultural studies, it is imperative that all teachers of history awaken to a consciousness of their position. They must be prepared to show the advantages to be derived from a study of history, and the need of a real, live teaching of the subject. If such arguments cannot be adduced in any teachers' meeting by the history teachers present, there is great danger that their subject will give place to some of the latest fads of popular pedagogy.

The need of concerted action among history teachers was emphasized at the recent meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland. Dr. Edgar Dawson, of Normal College, New York City, urged the co-operation of all history teachers in a campaign for the education of school administrators, school directors, and the community generally.

At the same meeting, Dr. E. W. Lytle, of the New York State Education Department, spoke in favor of a careful consideration of the place occupied by history in the high school curriculum proposed by the National Education Association.

Only by the widespread and intelligent action of history teachers will the desired effect be gained. The relation of history and civics to good citizenship, to business efficiency, and to life in general, must be made plain to the whole community. Every teacher of history should take his or her share in this work; not merely by speaking and lecturing upon the value of the subject, but by an activity in social service which would point the moral to the tale. He or she may sacrifice some of the very limited leisure at their disposal by attending teachers' meetings, or engaging in local enterprise, but the reward will be great both to the individual and the profession.

History in the Secondary School

History Reference Library for High Schools

CONTRIBUTED BY PROF. ARLEY BARTHLOW SHOW, LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY.

At the summer session of the California State Teachers' Association, in July, 1910, Miss Maud F. Stevens, of the Palo Alto High School, presented before the History Section a report on "A Reference Library for High Schools." After debate, Miss Stevens' report was referred to a committee of three for further consideration. At the winter session of the History Section, in December, 1910, this committee reported the subjoined list of books. The members of the committee were Miss Ada Goldsmith, Mission High School, San Francisco; Mr. W. L. Glascock, San Rafael High School; Professor A. B. Show, Stanford University, chairman.

The books in the list were chosen primarily for the use of pupils rather than of teachers. In a more extended list larger attention should be given to the distinctive needs of teachers. So far as possible, also, all works have been excluded which are not clearly adapted to high-school uses. In every case where available, simpler and more elementary works have been preferred. The committee has also sought to keep in view the progressive character of the history course from the Ancient History of the first year to the American History and Government of the fourth year.

The committee was specially helped in its work by Andrews, Gambrell and Tall: *A Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries*, and the Annual Lists of the North Central History Teachers' Association.

The changes made by the committee in Miss Stevens' Reference List are as follows:

I. GENERAL WORKS.

This list has been added to Miss Stevens' bibliography.

II. ANCIENT HISTORY.

Titles dropped: Abbott: "Greece," 5 vols.; Botsford: "Greece"; Bury: "Latin Roman Empire," 2 vols.; Dill, "Roman Society," 2 vols.; Holm: "Greece," 5 vols.

Titles added: Botsford: "Story of Rome"; Fowler: "Social Life"; Greenidge: "Greek Constitutional History"; Hosmer: "The Jews"; Mackail: "Latin Literature"; Murray: "Greek Literature."

III. MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

Titles dropped: Periods of European History, 6 vols.; Montgomery: "French History"; Morris: "French Revolution."

Titles added: Archer and Kingsford: "Crusades"; Field: "Renaissance"; "Ages of European History," 6 vols.; Munro and Sellery: "Medieval Civilization"; Ogg: "Source-book"; Seeböhm: "Protestant Revolution"; Seignobos: "Feudal Régime"; Thatcher and McNeal: "Source-book."

IV. ENGLISH HISTORY.

Titles dropped: Church: "Early Britain"; Green: "Conquest of England," "Making of England."

Titles added: "Beard: "Introduction to English Historians."

V. HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Titles dropped: Bourne: "Spain in America"; Doyle: "English Colonies," 3 vols.; Fiske: "Old Virginia and Her Neighbors," 2 vols.; "Dutch and Quaker Colonies," "American Revolution," 2 vols.; Larned: "History for Ready Reference," 7 vols.; Macdonald: "Source-books," 3 vols.; Semple: "Geographic Conditions."

Titles added: Andrews: "Colonial Self-government"; Bogart: "Economic History"; Dewey: "Financial History"; Earle: "Home Life"; Foster: "Century of American Diplomacy"; Hart: "Epoch Maps"; James and Mann: "Readings"; Morse; "Lincoln," 2 vols.; Paxson: "Last American Frontier"; Peck: "Twenty Years"; Rhodes: "United States," 7 vols.; Sparks: "Expansion"; Turner: "New West"; Woodburn: "Political Parties."

The cost of the Reference List of the committee is as follows:

General Works	\$19.45
Ancient History	65.05
Medieval and Modern History	55.47
English History	69.85
United States, History and Government..	125.60

Total \$335.42

These estimates make no allowance for discounts from publishers' prices. The entire list ought to be purchased for about three hundred dollars.

I. GENERAL WORKS.

Adams: European History	Macmillan.	\$1.40
Andrews: Brief Institutes of General History	Silver, Burdett & Co.	2.00
Dow: Atlas of European History	Holt.	1.50
Fisher: Outlines of Universal History. American Book Co.		2.40
George: Genealogical Tables Illustrative of Modern History	Clarendon Press.	3.00
Ploetz: Epitome of Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History	Houghton.	3.00
Putzger: Historischer Schul-Atlas.	Lemcke & Büchner.	1.15
Statesman's Year Book	Macmillan.	3.00
Wilson: The State	Heath.	2.00

II. ANCIENT HISTORY.

Abbott: Pericles. (Heroes)	Putnam.	\$1.50
Abbott: Roman Political Institutions	Ginn.	1.50
Beesly: Gracchi, Marius and Sulla. (Epochs) ..	Longmans.	1.00
Botsford: Story of Rome as Greeks and Romans Tell It.	Macmillan.	.90
Bury: History of Greece. 2 vols.	Macmillan.	8.90
Bury: Roman Empire	Harpers.	1.50
Capes: Early Roman Empire. (Epochs)	Longmans.	1.00
Capes: Age of Antonines. (Epochs)	Longmans.	1.00
Church: Carthage. (Stories of Nations)	Putnam.	1.50
Church: Roman Life in Days of Cicero	Macmillan.	.50
Cox: Athenian Empire. (Epochs)	Longmans.	1.00
Cox: Greeks and Persians. (Epochs)	Longmans.	1.00
Curteis: Rise of the Macedonian Empire. (Epochs) ..	Longmans.	1.00
Fling: Source Book of Greek History	Heath.	1.00
Fowler: Caesar. (Heroes)	Putnam.	1.50
Fowler: City State of Greeks and Romans	Macmillan.	1.00
Fowler: Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero	Macmillan.	2.25
Goodspeed: History of the Babylonians and Assyrians ..	Scribner.	1.25
Greenidge: Roman Public Life	Macmillan.	2.50
Greenidge: A Handbook of Greek Constitutional History.	Macmillan.	1.25
Gulick: Life of the Ancient Greeks	Appleton.	1.40
Hosmer: The Story of the Jews. (Stories)	Putnam.	1.50
How and Leigh: History of Rome	Longmans.	2.00
Ihne: Early Rome. (Epochs)	Longmans.	1.00
Johnston: Private Life of the Romans	Scott, Foresman & Co.	1.50
Kieport: Atlas		2.00
Mackail: Latin Literature	Scribner.	1.25
Mahaffy: Survey of Greek Civilization	Macmillan.	1.00
Mahaffy: Old Greek Life	American Book Company.	.35
Maspero: Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria ..	Appleton.	1.50
Merivale: Roman Triumvirates. (Epochs) ..	Longmans.	1.00
Morris: Hannibal. (Heroes)	Putnam.	1.50
Munro: Source Book of Roman History	Heath.	1.00
Murray: A History of Ancient Greek Literature	Appleton.	1.50

- Polham: Outlines of Roman History.....Putnam. 1.75
 Pellison: Roman Life in Pliny's Times.....Jacobs. 1.00
 Plutarch: LivesBell. 2.00
 Preston and Dodge: Private Life of the Romans.....1.00
 Rawlinson: Ancient Egypt. (Stories).....Putnam. 1.50
 Sankey: Spartan and Theban Supremacies. (Epochs).
 Longmans. 1.00
 Sayce: Babylonians and Assyrians, or Ancient Empires
 of the EastScribner. 1.25
 Smith: Rome and Carthage. (Epochs).....Longmans. 1.00
 Strachan-Davidson: Cicero. (Heroes).....Putnam. 1.50
 Wheeler: Alexander the Great. (Heroes).....Putnam. 1.50
- III. MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.**
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Suggestions on the Napoleonic Period

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Napoleon and the Directory.

So far as the secondary teacher of history is concerned, the Napoleonic period dates from the overthrow of Robespierre and the adoption of the Constitution of the Year III. The interval of the Directory was chiefly marked by incidents which owe their importance to their bearing on the elevation to power of the Corsican adventurer, Napoleon Bonaparte. "The interest of this epoch of the Directory," says Rose, "centers in Bonaparte's achievements and those of the French armies." Seeley also recognizes this fact, dividing the life of Napoleon into two periods which he designates as the Bonaparte period and the Napoleon period. These were essentially different in character, Brumaire marking the turning point. "In the first he is general, a servant of the State; in the second he is sovereign and master of the State." (p. 278.) With the opening of the Italian campaign of 1796, Napoleon looms up as the man of the hour—the Man with a Destiny, as he prefer to regard himself—and our attention must be focused more and more upon the doings of this child of fortune if we would understand the general trend of European development. The Directory interests us only as another one of France's numerous experiments in government. Aulard refers to it as the Bourgeois Republic. It is characterized by a decided reaction toward those conditions which prevailed under the *ancien régime* before the French people proclaimed the New Evangel of liberty and equality for all mankind. Someone has pointed out the fact that Robespierre might have played the role which Napoleon was so soon to assume as arbiter of the destinies of France, had he possessed sufficient genius or been animated by the same boundless ambition which marked the career of the latter. The Egyptian campaign, instead of marring a career begun under such favorable auspices beyond the Alps, served but to strengthen the hold which Napoleon had already secured over his countrymen. "The expedition," says Aulard, "adds a kind of Oriental prestige to Bonaparte's glory. Although he forsakes his army to return to France, he is regarded not as a deserter, but as a hero miraculously delivered." (Vol. IV., p. 138.) He showed himself from this time forward a veritable virtuoso in the art of turning other men's services and misfortunes to his own advantage. He had begun to absorb in his own person the fruits of the Revolution when he secured his appointment to the command of the Army of Italy; he consummated the work begun there, when with the help of Sieyès he overthrew the corrupt and inefficient government of the Directory and established himself as First Consul.

The Revolution of the 18th of Brumaire was but another evidence of the working of forces which had disclosed themselves at least as early as the year 1795. To paraphrase Napoleon's own words with reference to the Egyptian expedition (Johnston, *The Corsican*, p. 74); France awaited a man! The period of the Direc-

tory may therefore be presented as so many steps in the rise of Napoleon. From 1799 on to Waterloo the history of Europe resolves itself as never before nor since, into the most fascinating of studies, that of a commanding personality. Europe reflects the thoughts, the ambitions, the activities of a single individual. Although the question of how far Napoleon was moulded by circumstances and how far they moulded him offers much food for reflection (see in this connection the interesting study by Seeley) it is primarily the work of the secondary teacher to present the incidents in his life in such an interesting and pointed fashion as to fix his place in the century in which he lived, taking care to avoid an extreme view of his career. He was neither the personification of glory, nor was he the ruthless butcher who hewed his way to power regardless of the cost in human life and treasures.

Supplementary Reading.

There is so much of the dramatic in the career of Napoleon that any suggestions which may be made by the instructor as to outside reading on the period will perhaps meet with a more hearty response than is usually the case. Every opportunity which presents itself of stimulating outside reading should be eagerly grasped. The teacher should be prepared, if need be, to suggest page and chapter, so that any interest already aroused may receive its due meed of encouragement. A few words dropped here and there as occasion offers, accompanied by some display of enthusiasm, may do much to realize one of the great objects of our teaching—the implanting of an abiding interest in the subject. If supplementary reading is required in connection with the course, it should be carefully planned so as to realize this end. Only those books, or portions of books, should be recommended which will hold the student's interest and whet his appetite for more reading of the same character.

Bibliographical Aids.

It is not an easy matter to make suggestions on a subject about which so much has been written. Johnston estimates the number of books on Napoleon at forty thousand; so that to blaze a trail through such a mass of literature is the task of a lifetime of study. It is not our problem to furnish the secondary teacher with such a *Wegweiser* through Napoleonic literature. The teacher will find this already done by Robinson and Beard, "Readings in Modern European History," Vol. 1, pp. 407-410. (There is a similar effort made by Robinson in his "Readings," Vol. II, pp. 530-532, but the list is not quite so long); in the bibliographical notes to Johnston's "Napoleon"; in Bourne's bibliography to Fournier's "Napoleon"; in Vol. IX of the Cambridge Modern History; to a certain extent by Rosebery in his "Napoleon: the Last Phase;" and in similar works. No special effort has been made by these writers to differentiate between those books which are suitable

*Rose, *Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era*, p. 117, characterized.

for the teacher and those which can be read with pleasure and profit by boys and girls of high school age; or again to indicate those portions which are the most interesting. Such is not their purpose. The nearest approach to such an effort is made by the North Central History Teachers' Association in their proceedings for 1910, in their list of recent books on medieval and modern history; in the Syllabus of the New England History Teachers' Association; and in the recent Syllabus of the New York Regents. This last course of study prescribes a definite amount of collateral reading in connection with the various courses outlined there.

The following list of readings which have been culled from some of the more accessible books are offered merely as suggestions.

On the early life and education of Napoleon, Chapter II on Brienne and Chapter IV on the Ecole Militaire de Paris in Brown-ing's *Napoleon: the First Phase*; Bourrienne, *Memoirs*,* Vol. I, Chapters I-II on the Youth of Napoleon; and Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. I, pp. 309-312. (The same selections are to be found in Robinson's *Readings*, Vol. II, pp. 465-468.)

On the personality of Napoleon, Robinson and Beard, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 324-326, 3-55-356; (Robinson, *Readings*, Vol. II, pp. 486-489); Bourrienne, *Memoirs*, Vol. I, Chapter XXVIII, on the Habits, Character and Disposition of Bonaparte. Several descriptions of his appearance are to be found in the Appendix to Rosebery.

On the military aspects of Napoleon's career, Rope's *Napoleon* will be found good reading for the average boy. Marbot's accounts of Austerlitz (Vol. I, pp. 196-202), of Jena (Ibid., Chapter XXVI), and Friedland (Ibid., Chapter XXXII) will prove interesting as coming from the pen of an eye-witness. See also Dodge, *Napoleon*, Vol. IV, Chapter LXXV on Napoleon the Man and the Soldier, and the extracts in Robinson and Beard, *Readings*, Vol. I, pp. 314-323,

357-360; (Robinson, *Readings*, Vol. II, pp. 468-472, 474-480, 515-518).

On the closing years, Chapter XXIV on St. Helena, in the Cambridge *Modern History* (Vol. IX), should prove interesting; also Rose, *Napoleon I*, Vol. II, Chapter XLII on the Closing Years. These chapters also contain an estimate of his work.

In general Seignobos' *History of Contemporary Civilization* will be found to furnish much interesting collateral reading, especially pp. 152-155, 167-169, 176-180, 186-190. This may be said of Johnston's excellent biography. Almost every phase of Napoleon's life is illustrated in "The Corsican," edited by the same writer. It will prove more useful, however, in the hands of the teacher than as collateral reading. It abounds in epigrams and pertinent anecdotes.

The attention of the class should be called at the outset of the study of the period to the illustrations to be found in Sloane's *Napoleon*, and in Miss Tarbell's *Life of the Conqueror*. A very good set of reproductions of some of the famous paintings may be obtained from the Cosmos Pictures' Company (New York) at two cents each. These include the following subjects: Dumas, The Young Bonaparte at the Military School, Brienne; Greuze, Napoleon as Consul; †Coudet, Napoleon Before the Council of State; David, Napoleon as First Consul Crossing the Alps; Gautherot, Napoleon Wounded at Ratisbon; Gerard, Napoleon in Coronation Robes; Girodet, Napoleon Bonaparte; Gosse, Napoleon I at Tilsit; David, Coronation of Napoleon; Meissonier, Friedland, 1807; Meissonier, 1814; Gros, Napoleon at Eylau.

To this list may be added, Gerome, Napoleon Entering Cairo, and Bust of Napoleon; Vela, Last Days of Napoleon; the Arch of Triumph, the Palace at Fontainebleau, and the Throne Room in the Palace, published by the same company.

The Causes of the "War Between the States"

BY CHARLES R. FAY, ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

This topic should delight the heart of the teacher with a broad outlook; it cannot be learned by rote; it involves tracing relationships; stimulates active thought; and is, in itself, worthwhile.

When the stage has been reached at which the causes of the great struggle are to be specifically studied, a review from this single standpoint of both the colonial and national periods, will itself constitute a study of those causes.

In dealing with the period of colonization and settlement, the teacher has, of course, emphasized the diverse factors that led to a development of plantation life and slave labour in the Southern and to a more varied industry and free labour in the Northern colonies; these physiographical dissimilarities and consequent divergence in economic development form the fundamental bases of cleavage in the convention of 1787; the "three fifth's compromise" and the postponement of possible abolition of the slave trade to 1808 played no inconsiderable role in rendering the new constitution acceptable to the states. In the contest for political preponderance another element is also at work in the convention; the "Connecticut idea," to which is due equal representation in the Senate of large and small states indicates the second source of the difficulties that later culminated in an internecine war. Shall the nation, or shall the states as such predominate? A partial answer only was given in 1789; the issue was postponed.

There are, then, two lines of development to be traced, viz: (1) Slavery, and (2) States Rights. If the teacher had prepared ahead for the Civil War, the pupils may have been required to start in their note-books two lists of topics, which are to be added to from time to time, and which are headed respectively, Slavery and States Rights. Under the former, he may have already entered "Introduced into Virginia in 1619," "Early views of Washington and Jefferson," "Ordinance of 1787," "3/5's Compromise," "No prohibition of the slave trade before 1808;" and under the latter perhaps he has written "The Connecticut Idea."

During Washington's presidency the first congressional debate on slavery occurs, and it was in 1793 that Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin; these should have been duly entered; at the end

of Washington's second administration fears of disunion were entertained, Jefferson declaring to Washington that "North and South will hang together if they have you to hang on;" and Washington's Farewell Address warned against sectional jealousy and political parties divided on geographical lines; "Farewell Address" should have placed under "Connecticut Idea."

John Adams' Administration gave rise to the Alien and Sedition Laws in answer to which the opposition party promulgated the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions; these should have furnished entries for the pupil under the States Rights heading.

The purchase of the Louisiana territory in 1803 and the admission of Louisiana as a slave state led to threats of secession in New England, and should have been noted; likewise the plot of Aaron Burr and the extreme Federalists to form a Northern Confederacy; Jefferson's Embargo policy aroused in John Adams fears of a second New England plot for secession; and the Hartford Convention in 1814 was looked upon as an open threat by New England to leave the Union.

The effects of the cotton gin in fastening slavery upon the South and of the Louisiana purchase in making slavery a national question gradually made themselves felt; and before taking up the Missouri Compromise it will be well to ask the class to prepare two lists of states with dates of their admission, arranged as Free and Slave states. From this it will appear that in 1819, there were eleven free and eleven slave states; in 1820-21 the admission of Maine and Missouri balanced each other; the Missouri Compromise had, of course, been entered by the pupil under the slavery heading.

A dispute between Georgia and the national government over land within the limits of Georgia belonging to the Creek Indians (1825-1831), because of the political hostility of the House of Representatives, led to successful defiance of President John Quincy Adams by the state of Georgia; in 1830 occurred the Webster-Hayne debate; in 1831 Garrison founded the Liberator, and active anti-slavery agitation began in the North—all items for the pupil's lists.

* Translation by Phipps in 4 vols.

† This is referred to as Bonaparte at Toulon by Browning.

At this point attention should have been called to the fact that up to 1826 organized opposition to slavery was three times as strong in the South as in the North; the Nat Turner insurrection of 1831, the New England Anti-Slavery Society, 1832, and the American Anti-Slavery Society, 1833, show that the question was becoming acute.

The Nullification by South Carolina of the tariff of 1832; John C. Calhoun's advocacy of states rights; Anti-Slavery petitions and the "gag rule," as well as the murder of Lovejoy and Wendell Phillips's conversion to Abolition should all have been noted by the pupil. In 1836 the slave states were increased by the admission of Arkansas and in 1837 Michigan was added to the free states.

The annexation of Texas (1845) and the admission of Florida (1845) were balanced by Iowa (1846) and Wisconsin (1848).

The Mexican War was, of course, charged to the account of slavery; also the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas Bill, 1854, the Dred Scott Decision, 1857, the Lincoln-Douglas Debate, 1858, the John Brown Raid, 1859, and the election of Lincoln, 1860.

The note-book entries in the pupil's book would read something like the following:

FREE STATES.	SLAVE STATES.
1789 1. New Hampshire	1. Delaware
2. Massachusetts	2. Maryland
3. Connecticut	3. Virginia
4. Rhode Island	4. North Carolina
5. New York	5. South Carolina
6. New Jersey	6. Georgia
7. Pennsylvania	
1791 8. Vermont	
1792	7. Kentucky
1796	8. Tennessee
1802 9. Ohio	
1812	9. Louisiana
1816 10. Indiana	
1817	10. Mississippi
1811 11. Illinois	
1819	11. Alabama
1820 12. Maine	
1821	12. Missouri
1836	13. Arkansas
1837 13. Michigan	
1845	14. Florida
1845	15. Texas
1846 14. Iowa	
1848 15. Wisconsin	
1850 16. California	
1858 17. Minnesota	
1859 18. Oregon	

STATES RIGHTS.

Connecticut idea
Farewell address
Alien and sedition laws
Kentucky and Virginia resolutions
Admission of Louisiana, 1803
Aaron Burr and New England Federalists
Jefferson's embargo and New England
Hartford convention, 1814
Dispute with Georgia, 1825-1831
Webster-Hayne debate, 1830
Nullification in S. C., 1832
John C. Calhoun
Secession

SLAVERY.

Introduced in Virginia, 1619
Early views of Washington and Jefferson
Ordinance of 1787
3/5's compromise
No abolition of slave trade prior to 1808
Congressional debates in Washington's presidency
Cotton gin, 1793
Abolition societies in the South
Missouri compromise, 1820
"Liberator," 1831
Nat Turner insurrection, 1831
Abolition societies in the North
J. Q. Adams and "gag rule," 1836
Lovejoy murdered, 1837
Wendell Phillips becomes abolitionist
Annexation of Texas, 1845
Mexican War, 1846-48
Compromise of 1850
Kansas-Nebraska bill, 1854
Dred Scott decision, 1857
Lincoln-Douglas debate, 1858
John Brown raid, 1859
Election of Lincoln, 1860
Secession

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The most recent discussion of this topic that I have seen is contained in "The American Civil War" by John Formby, (Scribner's, 1910), Chapters I-III; consult also "The American Nation," edited by Hart; especially the volume by F. E. Chadwick, entitled, "The Causes of the Civil War," and the index of the series under titles Secession and Slavery; see also the index volume of the American Statesman series under titles Disunion and Slavery.

From Marcus Aurelius to Diocletian

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Teaching Possibilities of the Period.

The death of Marcus Aurelius inaugurates a period of decline in the history of the empire which was marked by many symptoms which characterize the closing century of the republic. The period is of about the same length, beginning with 180 A.D., and closing with 284 A.D. This interval, which properly terminates when Diocletian ascends the throne, marks the transition from the limited monarchy of the second century to the absolutist conception of government which characterized the fourth. Although this century from 180 to 284 A.D. presents many chaotic features, it may be treated as a unit in the class room. Not only does it suggest many interesting points of comparison with the last century of the republic; it also anticipates many of the causes which were ultimately to compass the downfall of the empire two centuries later. It does not therefore lack in interest; at the same time it offers a great variety of suggestions as to treatment. For example, it is possible to work into its presentation many phases of the life of the imperial period without being forced to drag these into the narrative as is sometimes done, thereby breaking its continuity. The destruction of Pompeii in the reign of Titus has often been made to serve as the open sesame to a discussion of Roman life under the empire; such features, for example, as the plan of the

Roman house and its furnishings, and the details of everyday existence. Still it must be admitted that a digression at this point interferes seriously with the narrative proper and makes it increasingly difficult for the student to retain his grasp of the imperial period as a whole.

The Introduction of Roman Life.

No one would insist that the period of the empire has the same value for the student as many other periods into which ancient history might be divided. In fact, there is a sameness about the story of the earlier centuries which makes it difficult to sustain the interest, or to fix the attention on the real progress which marks this part of ancient history. Ancient life is probably very much neglected in our present courses of study. A certain number of lessons on this aspect of ancient history might well replace many extended or detailed discussions of the doings of the emperors or the gradual transformation of the imperial government. These should not, however, be presented as so many digressions or excursions, but wherever possible, as integral portions of the history, and in such a manner as to show the progress which was being made toward a definite goal. The large number of books which have recently appeared on the life of republican and imperial Rome furnish a mine of well-arranged and interesting informa-

tion which was not available ten years ago. Some of these are of such a character as to furnish entertaining readings for the student, as for example, Johnston's "Private Life of the Romans," Seignobos' "Ancient Civilization," Boissier's "Cicero and His Friends," Tucker's "Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul," Abbott's "Roman Life and Politics," and his recent book, the "Common People of Ancient Rome," Pellison's "Roman Life in Pliny's Time," Friedländer's "Roman Life and Manners under the Early Empire," and Shumway's "A Day in Ancient Rome."

Analysis of the Period and Lesson Assignment.

It is possible to make the century under consideration serve at least three purposes, and still have it convey a sense of unity: (1) as an introduction to Roman life in the imperial period; (2) as an illustration of the fundamental weaknesses of the Roman social, political, and military organization, and (3) as an introduction or explanation of the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine and their successors. These last two objects may be easily realized by selecting certain well-defined characteristics of the century and making these the basis for the discussion of the reforms of Diocletian and Constantine. The following outline suggests the relation of this interval to the history of Rome under the empire and may be used by the student as a guide in preparing himself for the discussion of the class room. As this period is usually conceived as one in which the army was a potent factor, the topic might be phrased as follows:

THE DOMINATION OF THE ARMY AND THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.

- (A) Power and influence of the praetorian guard.
- (B) The times of the Severi. 195-235 A.D.
 - 1. Septimius Severus and the struggle for the throne.
 - 2. The Edict of Caracalla, 212 A.D.
 - 3. Alexander Severus and his campaigns, 222-235 A.D.
- (C) The Thirty Tyrants and the disintegration of the empire.
- (D) Partial Restoration under the Illyrian Emperors.

In assigning the topic it would be well to make clear to the class that they are to study the epoch primarily with a view to ascertaining the tendencies which mark the century, utilizing as far as possible the information contained in the textbook to illustrate these tendencies. They should be prepared to answer such questions as "What sort of a period was this in the history of Rome?" "What facts have led you to these conclusions?" Questions on this line will help bring out the salient features of the interval. These should be clearly formulated in the mind of the instructor beforehand, so that he may emphasize each when the time comes and leave a vivid and clear-cut impression of the century upon the mind of the student. The events of this interval determined the conditions under which Diocletian and Constantine were to labor and serve as the key to an understanding of their respective measures. Some of the more serious of the influences at work were the result of (1) the rise and spread of Christianity, (2) the activity of the barbarians, particularly along the Danubian and Eastern frontiers, (3) the power and influence of the army, (4) the moral decline and the growth of luxury, (5) the number and weakness of the emperors, and (6) the Germanizing of the frontier provinces.

By questioning the class as to just how far Diocletian and Constantine appreciated the situation and grappled with its problems, the instructor is able to establish their connection with the past and the bearing of their reforms upon the future. The time and attention which has already been given to these topics will determine the amount of time which should be devoted to them at this point. Many of the scattered threads may now be brought together with advantage, with a due regard to the relative importance of each factor in the situation.

Value of Illustrations.

A carefully selected illustration or anecdote will convey more meaning to the class than mere generalizing without recourse to specific instances. Of such a character would be the injunction of Septimius Severus to his son, "Content the soldiers and you may despise the rest"; or again the career of Elagabalus as an illustration of the character of the wearers of the purple. The pages of Gibbon will often serve this purpose. The writers of the Silver Age may be drawn upon to illustrate social conditions, especially the gradual moral decay which was sapping the vitality of the people, care being exercised to point out that conditions were perhaps not quite as widespread or hopeless as these writers would lead us to believe. A résumé of Roman life and customs could be introduced at this point either in the form of special reports or by bringing together the scattered portions of the textbook which throw light on this aspect of the history. When writers like Tucker, Abbott and Friedländer present such subjects as the position of women, touring under the empire, means of communication, Diocletian's Edict and the high cost of living, municipal politics in Pompeii, the career of a Roman student, the social day of a Roman aristocrat, children and education, it should prove an easy task to convey a clear-cut impression of the Roman himself, the chief factor in the progress or decline of a given epoch. How much more satisfactory is the feeling with which we close the pages of Roman history if we know that the student has come into contact with the actual life currents which ebbed and flowed in these centuries.

The problems before Diocletian and Constantine call to mind the tasks which confronted men like Sulla, Caesar, and Octavius, and the study of this period, therefore, affords an excellent opportunity for a stimulating review, in which the causes of the decline in each case may be carefully contrasted. These two centuries, namely from 133 B.C. to 27 B.C. and from 180 to 284 A.D. were two important periods in Rome's development. Upon their clear understanding hinges largely the student's grasp of the entire subject.

Bibliography.

The last two chapters in Seignobos's "History of Ancient Civilization" are well worth reading for the light which they throw upon this period. Mention should also be made of his "History of the Roman People," Chapter XXV; "Grant's Outlines of European History," Chapters VII-VIII; Davis's "Outline History of the Roman Empire," Chapter III, and pages 163-175, and Goodspeed's "Ancient History," pages 409-415.

A Method of Teaching Municipal Government

EDGAR W. AMES, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, TROY HIGH SCHOOL, TROY, N. Y.

There is a greater need for the careful teaching of the city and its government than for that of any other of our political institutions. The system of municipal government is to-day the least successful of any of the plans drawn up by our forefathers for the regulation of our affairs. This is largely because it was based originally to a large extent on that of English cities, and as the new conditions have arisen, modifications have been made, so that now the "general system represents an irregular growth of over one hundred years instead of a systematic and well-defined plan such as exists in our national and state governments." These irregularities make city government a subject not only difficult to teach, but also one in which it is difficult to arouse interest. To teach it properly, one must have a definite object in view that the irregularities may be cleared away, and municipal government be as clearly understood as that of our nation and our State.

The reasons for this definiteness are manifold. First of all the

great mass of population is crowding into our cities. Thither flows the great tide of immigration, bringing with it the many foreigners with their false ideas of freedom,—a freedom which deals only with the individual, and has no care for the rights of others. Into this "melting pot" come the inhabitants of all the world, and it is the problem of the teacher of civil government to be sure that a proper product is the result of the "melting."

Again, in the city we reach the greatest number with the least effort, and so the greatest results may be accomplished. Two-fifths of all the people of the United States live in cities of more than 8,000 inhabitants, whereas twenty-five years ago, less than one-fifth of our population dwelt in cities. This shows that the need for proper teaching of city government is greater than ever before.

If the questions arising in the dense centers of population are solved, then those arising in State and nation may be readily

answered. It is a well-known fact that many cities are governed by the "boss" and his corrupt coterie, whose only business is politics, their only care their private interests. As the municipal government involves the expending of a large amount of money, greater in proportion to the population than any other governmental division, it is evident that the citizens should be as interested as possible in this matter. If the children are being trained to interest themselves in these problems, a class of citizens is being raised up to fight corruption and bad government in its centers, and the regeneration of government will start there.

Naturally the great cities contain the great centers of thought and in them start the greater part of the movements for the uplift and betterment of the race. This follows as a result of the many new conditions which arise there, and the correct solution of the problems arising from these new conditions may be applied universally. On the other hand, many of the serious questions which have arisen in the different municipalities might have been easily avoided if the conditions which gave them rise had been studied in the public schools.

The average citizen is too busy, or too apathetic to spend time on city affairs, sometimes even too busy to vote. The only way to combat this indifference, and to remedy it, is to teach the children what a serious thing this indifference is. "All for the city, the city for all," is the rallying cry of many municipalities to-day, and the meaning of this slogan is being taught to the children in the kindergartens. In such cities, the growth toward better government is very marked. Rochester, N. Y., is a notable example of this.

The great business corporations have their places of business in the cities. Here they may be studied at close range. Here may be noted the working of the great company that is acting within its rights, rights which are granted by a lawful and proper franchise. Too often, may be as readily noted the greed and lawlessness of a corporation; its oppression of the poor, its lack of observance of the law, and the illegal business methods which have been too much in evidence during the past years. Who is to combat this disregard of law? Who will solve the problem of proper control of the corporations? The only answer can be, the students who have been trained in the schools to stand for civic decency, and civic honesty. In their hands lies the solution of all these questions.

Such being the conditions which confront the teachers of civil government in the cities, and such being some of the problems to be solved, what is the best method of approach by which to reach the average boy and girl in a city school? The psychological basis for such an approach is the same as that for any other subject, i. e., attention, and attention must be aroused by interest. Dexter and Garlick in their "Psychology in the School Room," define interest as "the name given to the pleasurable or painful feelings which are evoked by an object or an idea, and which give that object or idea the power of arousing and holding the attention," and they quote, "Whatever does not interest the mind, that the mind is indifferent to, and whatever it is indifferent to, is to that mind as if it had no existence."

The former method of approach was to begin at the home, as this was the most elementary form of government. This method is perhaps psychologically correct, as it follows the axiom—"from the known to the related unknown,"—but it did not seem to produce results. Interest is dependent on a certain amount of similarity; the connection with what is pleasurable or painful; and curiosity. The home is too often not a center of interest. The perfect familiarity with all its surroundings makes the child oblivious to the home as a form of government and so it becomes valueless as a basis for our work in the study of government. On the other hand, we know that the young of all animals are full of curiosity,—all nature students, whether "fakirs" or not, agree in this, and the human young are no different from those of other species. The child is a human interrogation point, and it is the province of the teacher to turn this curiosity in the right direction.

It would seem that the makers of the Syllabus in Civics, recently issued by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, had this latter method of approach in mind when they formulated the work to be followed by the cities. They begin to work in the city street. A great part of the average city child's time is spent there,—on his way to and from school, at his play, or going about his manifold business. No matter what he is doing, or where he is going, if he is in the street, he is coming in contact with city government. He sees the policeman patrolling

the street; he sees the telephone and telegraph wires crossing and recrossing the street, and the ugly poles on which they are raised aloft. If he rides to school he goes on the electric or elevated trains, in an automobile or on a bicycle. If he walks, he goes along the city pavements, noting perhaps, the street noises, the cries of the push-cart man, the jangling bells of the junk buyer or the mournful shoutings of the "old clo'es" dealer. He sees the steady stream of traffic going in each direction, with little or no disorder, all obedient to the uplifted hand of the policeman. All these facts are crowding in upon the consciousness of the child, and all that is necessary is to focus this consciousness into attention to a particular object to have the pupil intensely interested at once.

We have said that the pupil was a living question mark. Let him make a list of the street activities that he has seen on his way to school and try to solve their relation to the city government. There will be no lack of interest and the questions will begin to come. What right have trolley cars to use the middle of the street? How do they obtain this right? Why is a certain kind of pavement used in one street, and another sort in the next one? Who decides this? Who has the right to put up a notice that if we spit in the street or other public place, we are liable to a fine? Why do the vehicles on one side of the street go in one direction, and those on the opposite side go in the other direction? What becomes of the offender whom the policeman takes to the station house? Has he any rights, and if so what are they? Questions enough will soon be asked to develop the fact that there are the three great departments of government, and from this it will be easy to lead the pupils to ask how these officials obtain power, and how they know what their duties are. This will bring about a discussion of the city charter, the history of the formation and growth of the city, and its relation to the State.

The point has now been reached where the co-operation of the city officials may be asked for. It will be much more interesting for the class to hear them explain their powers and duties, than to study these facts from a text-book, or from the city charter.

This help may be obtained in two ways. The teacher may go to the city officials and ask them to write out their ideas as to the responsibilities and duties of their office. He may then have their signed statements mimeographed, and copies of them placed in the hands of the students. The better way, however, is to permit the pupils to appoint committees from their own number to obtain these statements. They then receive the facts at first hand, and get into actual touch with the city government.

Even if the departments are visited, and these statements obtained, it is very important that some of the city officials should meet the class and talk to it on some topic connected with the making of a good city. This the municipal officers will be pleased to do.

In many cities are commissions of various kinds, or certain philanthropic individuals who investigate such conditions in the city as are not commonly noted; e. g., those who investigate tenement house conditions and offer suggestions for their improvement. An address from one who has made a study of such subjects in one's own city would do more to arouse the interest and secure the help of the children than the mere study of books would ever accomplish. Notes on such addresses should appear in the student's note-books.

When the study of the law-making department is taken up, permission should be obtained for the students to attend the deliberations of the common council. It is even better for the members of the class to be formed into a common council, with members properly elected, the proper presiding officer chosen, and with regularly held sessions. Ordinances for civic betterment should be introduced, debated and voted upon. The entire discipline in some schools is carried on by such a body, acting under faculty supervision.

In addition to the discussions which arise concerning the various departments of government, questions will arise in regard to the city utilities. How are franchises granted to railway and other corporations? How do other companies or individuals receive permits to do business in the city? How is the city water supply regulated and kept pure? What precautions are taken to care for the health of the city? How is its waste and garbage disposed of? Besides these specific queries, the general one of private versus municipal ownership should be discussed. The easiest way to accomplish such discussions may perhaps be found in debate. It must be clearly stated to the debater, that such a debate must be prepared very carefully. The class should be required to take notes on such work,

reproducing in their note-books what is said in the class-room and making this the basis of future study.

In some schools these debates take place in "civics" clubs, formed for the discussion of municipal problems. It is not necessary that the membership be limited to those studying civics, but anyone who is interested in his city should be admitted to such a society and take part in the discussions.

Though the work outlined above refers particularly to the pupils in the high school, yet it may be as readily adapted for use in the grades. The reasons given for the study of the city government are stronger in the elementary schools than they are in the high school, for the mental habits of the children are less formed and therefore their co-operation in good government will be more easily secured. The improvement league of the city should enlist the help of the children, and its work will be much lessened by intelligent use of their help. In many cities junior civic leagues are being formed, having for their object the training of the children in civic matters. Their help is enlisted for clean streets; they are taught to observe the law while playing on the streets; to look out for the rights of others, and, in general, to grow up useful, law-abiding citizens and to be proud of their city.

When the pupil's own city has been thoroughly discussed, its government should be compared with that of other cities. The

questions should be asked: "Wherein is my city lacking?" "How can what is lacking be brought into the life of my city?"

From the above plan of teaching we may expect certain definite results. First, the student will learn certain facts about his own city. Second, a better city will result—better in an exterior aspect, and better in its moral uplift. It will be easy to get rid of the bill-boards, with their staring, and, too often, vicious displays, if the sentiment of the children is aroused against them. There will be no trouble in getting parks set aside, playgrounds opened, and the city generally beautified, if the children are thoroughly awakened to the need of these things. In the present, they will arouse their parents to demand good government, and in the future they will be able to demand it for themselves. When they come to vote, they will be able to demand that the "boss," entrenched behind the city patronage, shall be driven from his place, and that the corporations shall give full value for the rights that they have procured from the people. Third, as soon as a child begins to feel that it is *his* city, and that he has a personal responsibility in its activities, at that time begins his growth in good citizenship. This growth reacts on the making of a better city, for the basis of good city government is a body of citizens which make the welfare of their city their own welfare, and which work together for a "city beautiful."

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Dr. Edwin S. Corwin has been elected professor of politics in Princeton University.

Mr. Henry Aaron Yeomans has been appointed Assistant Professor of Government at Harvard University.

The State Senate of Virginia has defeated a bill requiring civic training to be given in all the high schools of the state.

Mr. William S. Anderson will publish this year with Moffat, Yard & Co., a work upon "Smuggling in the American Colonies."

The Yale University Press will this spring, publish "The Origin of the English Constitution," by Prof. George B. Adams.

Harvard University has purchased the library of Marquis Olivart, one of the most complete libraries of international law in existence.

Mr. W. C. Westerguard has resigned from the Alameda (Cal.) High School, and is now pursuing graduate study at Cornell University.

Messrs. Geo. P. Putnam's Sons announce for early issue "Woodrow Wilson and New Jersey Made Over," by Miss Hester E. Hosford.

The anniversary of the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence will be observed in Charlotte, N. C., as usual on the twentieth day of May.

Dr. C. R. Atkinson, of Ursinus College, will give courses in Comparative Politics and American Government in the Summer School at Oberlin College.

Professor G. W. Knight, professor of American History at Ohio State University, is a delegate from Columbus to the Ohio State Constitutional Convention.

The "Journal of Education," Boston, in its issue of January 18, had an interesting article by Mr. H. W. Edwards, of Berkeley, Cal., on "The Teaching of Peace."

The Mississippi Teachers' Association will meet at Gulfport on May 2, 3, 4, 1912. A portion of the program will be devoted to history. The program will be issued about April 1.

Professor William M. Sloane, who occupies the Theodore Roosevelt professorship at the University of Berlin in 1912-1913, will lecture upon the history of political parties in the United States.

Columbia University has introduced an innovation in the form of a series of lectures to be given at the University on Monday afternoons by the principal officers of the New York City Government.

Brown University has received a gift of the library of Col. George Earle Church, London. The library consists mainly of works upon South America and Central America and includes many rare volumes.

Mr. George F. Strong, librarian of the Hatch Library, Cleveland, Ohio, has arranged an exhibition of publications of historical interest in connection with the development of the colleges and universities in the Middle West.

The University of Wisconsin has inaugurated a "Forward Wisconsin" movement in which the University aims to study the social and economic problems of the state, to strengthen the student activities, and to make them conducive to better citizenship.

The May First Club, a California organization of about forty men teachers met on February 17. The speaker was Rev. Bradford Leavitt, of the First Unitarian Church, San Francisco, whose topic was "The Value of History from the Point of View of a Minister."

Mr. Fletcher Harper Swift has published through Henry Holt & Co., a "History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905." More than one-half of the work is devoted to an account of the public school funds in each one of the States.

Leaflets 27 and 28 of the (English) Historical Association contain an account of The American Historical Association by Professor J. W. Prothero, and a paper on "Some Influences of the Geography of Northumberland upon its History" by G. H. Thomson.

Miss Nellie Hammond, of the Woburn, Mass., High School, has organized the "City of Woburnia" among her pupils in Government, and the inauguration of the new city government took place recently in the High School before a large audience, which included many members of the actual Woburn city government.

The Filson Club has just issued number XXVI. of its publications, devoted to "The Kentucky Mountains: Transportation and Commerce, 1750-1911," by Miss Mary Verhoeff. The work includes a geographical introduction describing the region, and then an historical account of the transportation and commerce through the mountains.

The Middlebury (Vt.) College Bulletin for October, 1911, contains a paper by Professor Raymond MacFarlane, giving a list of one hundred books composing a high school teacher's professional library. Among the several topics under which works are listed, are History, Biography and Methods of Instruction in History, Civics, and Government.

"The Common Cause" is a new publication devoted to opposition to Socialism, giving aid to promote means to defeat it, but interested positively in many worthy reforms. It maintains a free publicity bureau, a free information bureau, and a list of lecturers upon Socialism. The paper is published by The Social Reform Press, 154 E. 23d Street, New York City.

There has been prepared under the direction of the Secretary of State, an "Outline of the Organization and Work of the Department of State," a pamphlet published by the Government Printing Office. This work gives not only a brief history of the department, but also an account of the duties and functions of the several bureaus and officials of the department.

Many suggestions have been made in the present Congress for the erection of a memorial to President Lincoln. In addition to the proposed national highway, a monumental structure in Washington has been proposed. Now Representative W. G. Sharp, of Ohio, suggests the establishment of a national vocational school as the most appropriate memorial to Abraham Lincoln.

An editorial in "The Nation" for January twenty-fifth, called attention to the difficulty which history students have experienced in obtaining access to the records of the War Department. The editorial called forth a series of letters from historical scholars, endorsing the views expressed in the editorial. Some of these letters were printed in "The Nation," for February twenty-second.

The American Historical Association has sent out its annual notices of the terms of competition for the Justin Windsor Prize in American History and the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize in European History. Details in connection with the awarding of these prizes, each of which amounts to two hundred dollars, may be obtained from the respective chairmen, Professor Claude H. Van Tyne, University of Michigan, and Professor George L. Burr, Cornell University.

Dr. Morris Jastrow, Jr., contributes a letter to "The Nation" for March fourteenth, calling attention to the important discovery of a cuneiform tablet by Prof. Vincent Scheil, of Paris. The tablet makes possible the successive enumeration of five dynasties of kings ruling in the Euphrates Valley before the dynasty of Ur. It confirms the knowledge of Sargon's humble origin, and it brings forward the name of the oldest female ruler in the world, a woman named Azagbau.

The educational possibilities of the moving picture show have scarcely been realized. A step in this direction is made by The Rev. Herbert A. Jump, Minister of the South Congregational Church, New Britain, Conn., in a pamphlet entitled "Religious Possibilities of the Motion Picture." While dealing mainly with the religious aspects of the subject, Mr. Jump gives many details relating to moving pictures. Copies of the pamphlet can be obtained upon remitting five cents to Mr. Jump, to cover postage.

In the minutes of the sixth annual meeting of the New York State Examinations Board, it was voted that a special committee consisting of Superintendent Maxwell, President Rhees, and President Finley, be appointed to report to the Commissioner of Education within the next three months, a plan for an educational museum, to be established in the Education Building connected with the State Education Department. Certain alcoves will be devoted to special high school subjects, and History will be one represented.

Through the generosity of Mr. Gardiner M. Lane, the Department of the Classics, Harvard University, offers a course of six lectures on "Life and Letters at Athens, from Pericles to Alexander," by Paul Shorey, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Greek at the University of Chicago. The lectures will be given in the month of March, and include the following topics: The Age of Pericles; Aristophanes; The Case of Euripides; The School of Athens—Plato and Isocrates; Demosthenes and the Lost Cause; From Aristophanes to Menander—Life and Letters in the Little Athens of the Fourth Century.

The third conference of the Western Economic Society was held in Chicago, on March the first and second. It was devoted to a discussion of a topic interesting to historians, as well as to economists, "The Regulation of Industrial Combinations." Among the speakers were: Prof. Ernest Freund, of the University of Chicago; Prof. H. S. Smalley, of the University of Michigan; Prof. G. P. Hall, Dean of the University of Chicago Law School; Prof. H.

Parker Willis, of George Washington University; Prof. C. W. Wright, of the University of Chicago; Prof. J. W. Jenks, of Cornell University; and Prof. Edwin S. Meade, of the University of Pennsylvania.

There has been formed at the University of Missouri, a history club, composed of members of the history faculty and of students especially interested in historical study. The club meets once a month, usually at the home of one of the faculty members. The affairs of the club are directed by a committee composed of one faculty member, one graduate student, and one undergraduate student. The program for each monthly meeting has included a fifteen minute or half hour discussion of current history, a fifteen minute paper upon some world-famous historian, and closes with a twenty minute paper, followed by an open discussion, upon the relation of History to some closely allied subject such as Literature, Sociology, Geography, or Economics. The club has had a successful year.

The United States Bureau of Education, at Washington, D. C., possesses a special pedagogical library of more than one hundred thousand volumes which, while primarily a working collection for the Bureau itself, is also designed to serve, as far as possible, as a central reference and circulating library for educators throughout the country. In some respects the library is the best equipped in the country and it has particularly good files of school reports of the states and cities, documents and reports of universities, colleges and schools, transactions of educational associations and educational periodicals. The resources of the library are open to the use of scholars both by means of the reading room facilities furnished in Washington, and also through the liberal inter-library and personal loan system, which has been established.

VASSAR ALUMNÆ.

The sixteenth annual meeting of the Vassar Alumnae Historical Association was held at Vassar College on Saturday, February 24, 1912. The subject of the meeting was "What Have Vassar Alumnae Done for the Promotion of Historical Studies?"

On Friday afternoon Dr. Lucy E. Textor, who spent the past summer in Russia, spoke on "Life on a Russian Estate."

On Friday evening Professor Theodore Clarke Smith, formerly of Vassar, now of Williams College, gave the annual Washington's Birthday address on "Iconoclasm in the Writing of History," apropos of recent criticism of Washington.

The members of the Senior Class reproduced on Saturday evening a session of the General Court of Massachusetts, debating impromptu the questions at issue between England and America in the American Revolution.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The work of revising the catalog of "Aids to Historical Teaching," the collection of the New England Association at Simmons College, is going on rapidly, and the new catalog is expected about May 1. Mr. M. L. Bonham, Jr., Simmons College, is chairman of the committee.

The principal papers read at meetings of the New England Association will be published in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and the annual reports of the Association will be discontinued. Copies of the MAGAZINE containing the papers will be mailed to all members.

OHIO HISTORY TEACHERS.

A resolution favoring the formation of a state history teachers' association in Ohio was adopted at a meeting of teachers in Cincinnati, on Saturday, March 16. The occasion was the session of the history section of the eighth annual conference of the secondary school principals and teachers of the schools accredited to the University of Cincinnati.

Mr. D. C. Shilling, of the Hamilton, Ohio, high school, acted as chairman of the history section. In an address upon "American Writers of European History," Mr. James F. Dilworth, of the University of Cincinnati, pointed out that since 1908 at least nineteen creditable books and monographs by eleven different American writers, had been published. Professor Merrick Whitcomb, in the following discussion, emphasized the advantages of European history as a field for monographic work.

"The Social Sciences for Commercial Students" was the title of a paper read by Mr. Frank P. Goodwin, of the Woodward High

School, Cincinnati. Mr. Goodwin urged the omission of political and dynastic details in commercial courses, and the inclusion of more facts of a social, economic and industrial character. Miss Ella Mae Cope, of Hamilton, Ohio, in speaking of the training of the high school teacher of history, favored a broad college course, followed by specialized work in history in the graduate school. She emphasized the necessity of *knowing history* as well as knowing methods of teaching.

Miss Marie P. Dickoré, of Cincinnati, gave a strong argument in favor of a state history teachers' association. She showed that the teachers of language, mathematics, and science had already organized, and that it was time for history teachers to take similar action. A resolution favoring such an organization was passed by the conference.

At the November, 1911, meeting of the Central Ohio Teachers' Association, a committee, of which Mr. D. C. Shilling, of Hamilton, Ohio, is chairman, was appointed to prepare a plan for a state organization. The chairman will be pleased to correspond with Ohio teachers of history who are interested in the movement.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland was held at Normal College, New York City, on March 8 and 9. Two sessions were held, one on Friday afternoon, and the other on Saturday morning, Friday evening being left open as experience had shown the difficulty of holding evening meetings in New York City.

The afternoon session was devoted to a consideration of the subjects of certification of history teachers, and the teaching of economics in the high school. Professor Edgar Dawson, of Normal College, read the principal paper upon the first topic. He pointed out that more preparation is needed before the teacher begins to teach history. Germany, France and the state of California had already gone far in this direction, said Prof. Dawson; and much must be done in other states before the history teacher can gain a more dignified position and a larger salary.

A requirement both as to the time spent in preparation, and as to the content of the course, is needed in the territory covered by the Middle States Association. The time limit should be at least that required to receive the bachelor's degree; with one more year for teachers in large high schools; and a second additional year for those schools, in which all the time of the teacher is devoted to the subject of history.

For the content of the course, Dr. Dawson recommended a liberal education, including two languages, biology, and logics or mathematics; special courses in history occupying at least one-third of the entire course; and pedagogical courses including practice and observation, to the amount of one-tenth of the course. Dr. Dawson closed with an appeal for the education of school administrators, the general public, and the colleges and universities, to a realization of the urgent need of better prepared teachers of history. His paper will be published in full in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.

In the discussion which followed, Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the Trenton, (N. J.) Normal School, agreed with Prof. Dawson's plan. She emphasized the necessity of observation work with actual classes, and called attention to the fact that a college degree was not sufficient for the history teacher—the teacher must have had good training in history in the college course. Miss Dynes advocated the study of the lives of eminent historians in order to understand their problems and methods of work.

Mr. Alexander L. Pugh, of the High School of Commerce, New York City, read a report from the committee, upon the teaching of economics in the high school. The report was in the form of answers to three questions: Why teach political economy in the high school? Can it be taught in the high school? How shall it be taught?

First, economics should be taught in the high school because of the many economic problems facing the every-day citizen; because its reasoning methods are closely akin to those used in ordinary life; because history teachers are emphasizing industrial and economic history, but are giving no adequate organization of the facts so presented; and because only one person (college graduates) in five hundred will receive training in economics if it is not given in the high school.

Second, Can economics be taught in the high school? Many persons urge that it cannot, because there are no adequate text-

books and no trained teachers, and because the subject is too difficult. Mr. Pugh pointed to the large display of text-books he had placed on the table as answer to the first objection. He said that history teachers had usually studied the subject of economics and were qualified to teach it to high school students. He said that it had been taught successfully in the first year of the New York High School of Commerce for the past seven years. The material was so vast that it is possible to select that part of it fitted to students of any particular grade.

Third, as to how economics should be taught, Mr. Pugh advised putting it into the fourth year of the high school course in place of higher mathematics or second year physics. There should be a small text-book to give the theory; and in the second half of the course a study of special problems, such as the trusts, money, labor and transportation. In commercial courses the economics should occupy two years and should be preceded by a strong course in commercial geography. In agricultural schools, it should take the form of the economics of agriculture.

In the discussion which followed, the suggestion was made and opposed that sociology be put in the high school course. The fear was expressed that economics might take some of the time devoted to fourth year history, but it seemed to be the general opinion that it should take its own place among the subjects fit for high school study, and that history should not be sacrificed to it any more than any other subject might be compelled to yield to the incorporation of a new course in the curriculum. Among those participating in the discussion were Miss Byrnes, Messrs. Lytle, Schuyler, and Knowlton.

The committee was thanked for its report, and continued for another year with the request that a syllabus be prepared for high school economics.

Historical geography was the general topic for the Saturday morning session. Professor William R. Shepherd read a stimulating paper, treating of the relation of geography to history, and of the desirable qualities in historical maps and atlases. Professor Shepherd held that geography is an ultimate determinant of history; it furnishes the space relationship in which men's actions take place in a time relationship.

The inadequacy of present historical maps, and the qualities they should possess were next discussed by Dr. Shepherd. Upon the mechanical side he demanded greater accuracy and clearness in drawing maps; the exact locating of places; harmony and uniformity in the color schemes; and elaborate legends to make the maps fully intelligible. In the matter of content, he advocated a wide range of maps for the historical student, including physical and political maps; maps showing treaty adjustments, political, social and economic development; reference maps containing all the places the location of which might be useful; plans of cities; contemporaneous maps, and many other forms. In maps relating to United States history he would study the location and migration of Indian tribes; the full treatment of all parts of the country, not only the thirteen English colonies; and the supreme emphasis upon the westward movement, with its manifold variations.

Professor Shepherd's paper, it is hoped, will be available for publication in an early number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.

Miss Elizabeth Briggs, of the Horace Mann High School, New York, spoke upon the knowledge, or rather, the lack of knowledge of historical geography upon the part of secondary school pupils, as shown in the answer papers submitted to the College Entrance Examination Board. Up to 1905, the answers upon historical geography were uniformly rated lower than the answers to any other history questions. Since 1905 there has been a gradual improvement, until in 1910 and 1911 the geography answers were rated at about the same value as other history answers.

Mr. Joseph F. Sheehan of Public School, No. 153, Brooklyn, showed what was done in his school in encouraging the study of local historical geography. Gravesend, the oldest English settlement on the western end of Long Island, is now included in the region of his school; and the scholars are encouraged to study the history and visit the sites of interesting places in connection with this original settlement. A lively discussion followed the reading of these papers.

At the business meeting, the following officers were elected: Prof. Edgar Dawson, Normal College, President; Mrs. B. Walker, of Washington, D. C., Vice-President; Prof. Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University, Secretary-Treasurer; ad-

ditional members of the council, Dr. James Sullivan, Prof. William E. Lingelbach, Dr. Albert E. McKinley and Samuel B. Howe, Jr.

In addition to the standing committee on economics in the high school, new committees were appointed to investigate the amount and kind of historical geography taught in the secondary school, and to examine into the preparation and certification of high school teachers of history. A resolution was adopted that at some future meeting the association would discuss the report of the

National Education Association on the high school course, so far as it refers to the units in history. The council was instructed to call the next meeting for November 29 and 30, 1912, at Philadelphia, at the time of the annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

The sessions closed with a very enjoyable luncheon tendered to the members of the Association by the Normal College.

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

FERRERO, GUGIELMO. *The Women of the Caesars*. New York, The Century Co., Pp. 337. \$2.00.

One has learned to expect from Ferrero's writings a vivid, dramatic presentation that will be intensely interesting, and views that differ decidedly from the accepted accounts. These characteristics are all found in this book which consists mostly of articles which have been published in the *Century Magazine*.

For the teacher of Roman History the most valuable of all is the introductory chapter on "Woman and Marriage in Ancient Rome." The remaining chapters are: Livia and Julia; The Daughters of Agrippa; Tiberius and Agrippina; The Sisters of Caligula and the Marriage of Messalina; Agrippina, the Mother of Nero.

The author's thesis is that Roman marriages and divorces were social and political "arrangements," and therefore, he has given political history with the character sketches. In comparison with Greek women, the Roman matrons enjoyed a free and independent position and exerted an important, although an indirect, influence on politics. (To an American this may seem a very restricted freedom and hardly more than a decorative slavery).

While the author's views differ widely from established opinions regarding Julia, Livia, the two Agrippinas, and Messalina, he furnishes no new facts as proofs, no investigations of inscriptions or monuments. Tacitus and Suetonius seem to be his only authorities. Hence his treatment will fail to convince students that the book is a trustworthy historical treatise. To many, it will appear rather as a series of brilliantly-written essays.

It is, however, well illustrated with photographs of drawings, and paintings by Andri Castaigne and Alma Tadema, with copies of ancient coins and cameos, and also with very good reproductions of Roman portrait-sculpture, including the photograph of the latest statue of Augustus found in Rome in 1910.

Victoria A. Adams.

DAVIS, H. W. C. *Medieval Europe*. (Home University Library.) New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256, 50c.

This little book is an admirable refutation of Gibbon's famous postulate that the Middle Ages were but "a long night of ignorance and force, only redeemed from utter squalor by some lingering rays of ancient culture." The author has used fine discrimination in his selection of material. Commencing with an excellent analysis of the causes of the downfall of the Roman Empire, he traces in vivid fashion the founding of the barbarian kingdoms, the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire, its inevitable struggle with the Papacy, the causes and characteristics of feudalism, and the expansion of Europe in the later Middle Ages. He wisely calls attention to the fact that the Crusades form but the climax to an earlier advance of Europe elsewhere: in the northeast against the Slavs, in the southeast against the Hungarians, and in the south against the Moors. The most striking characteristics of the later Middle Ages—the medieval church, the medieval state, and the free towns—have especially able and fair chapters devoted to their discussion. It is unfortunate that there is no index: otherwise the defects of the book are few.

It is too advanced for high school pupils, but teachers and mature students of history will find it stimulating and suggestive.

Howard C. Hill.

FISHER, SIDNEY G. *The True Daniel Webster*. Philadelphia, The J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. xiv, 517. \$2.00.

This title more than hints that other biographies of Webster are not true, and this aspersion the author justifies by the declaration that they were written under the influence of a tradition created by Webster's abolitionist and free-soil opponents who "tore and mangled him until it is an almost unrecognizable body

his biographer has to reanimate with its original soul." It is from this source, he declares, that the calumny of drunkenness started. The characteristics of this biography are this attitude of defense of Webster, a fullness of detail in the narrative, with oftentimes a loquacious quality, and a clear, simple and interesting style. Webster was so towering a figure in national affairs, from the war of 1812 to 1852, that, as Rhodes says, "The best possible way of studying the period is through his career." Consequently, in this account of party issues and leaders, there is much serviceable material for both teachers and pupils. The author's generous method of treatment of his themes may be illustrated from his chapter on the great debate with Senator Hayne. Here there is not only a vivid and impartial account of the contest in eloquence, but also a clear statement of the political situation, out of which it arose, to wit, the struggle of western and southern political leaders to make permanent the recent political alliance between the west and the south against the east, and also a good summary of the national policy as to the public land, pertinent because it was out of a resolution relating to this that the debate started. The author justifies the Seventh of March speech, declaring that Webster was not trimming his sails to catch a favoring presidential breeze, but was courageously defending the only policy which seemed to him to promise the preservation of the Union he so deeply cherished.

The descriptions of Webster's personal and private interests are attractive,—his fondness for his Marchfield and the Elms, his country home in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, his love of the early morning, his liking for large things, "the mountains, great trees, mighty oxen, wide fields, the ocean, the Union, the immense things of literature" which fit so well with the titanic quality of his personality and genius.

The reader will leave the story with a clearer understanding of this period of our history and a livelier sense of appreciation of this statesman, whose influence was so potent in it.

Wayland J. Chase.

FLETCHER, C. R. L., and KIPLING, RUDYARD. *A History of England*. New York, Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. 308. \$1.80.

Mr. Fletcher has gained some renown as a humorist among historians, and his newest volume is as enjoyable and also as reckless in statement as his earlier ones. Scattered through the narrative are twenty-three poems by Mr. Kipling, some of which have considerable merit, while a few are rather disappointing. It is difficult to see what demand there can be for this work on the American market. For use as a text-book it is entirely unsuited: it is written from a Tory view-point, and apparently for the purpose of emphasizing the need of further strengthening the British army and navy—so persistently is this urged that it finally becomes tiresome. Nor can the book be very serviceable as collateral reading, as it does not contain an adequate amount of materials—only a third as much as the average American text-book in English history. Mr. Henry Ford has contributed a series of very striking and very fanciful illustrations beginning with a picture of life in the Stone age and closing with "a glimpse of the future."

Lawrence M. Larson.

ABBOTT, F. F. *The Common People of Ancient Rome*. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 290. \$1.50.

This is a book of essays, dealing with certain phases of the social and economic life of the common people of Rome, in the time of the Empire. Written in the same attractive style which the author used in his "Society and Politics in Ancient Rome," they treat of the following: How Latin became the world language; the Latin of the common people, their poetry; Dioctetian's edict of maximum prices; Roman corporations and trade-

guilds; and other topics of equal interest. Some of it is heavy pabulum for the young high school pupil, rather because of the intrinsic difficulty of the subjects dealt with than because of the author's treatment, which is popular in the best sense and very clear. The last two essays, "A Roman Politician," and "A Friend of Caesar," are character sketches of two of Caesar's associates, G. S. Curio, the brilliant and erratic young lieutenant, and G. Matius, disinterested and loyal, "not captured by the charm either of public office or of gold," and in them the magnetism of Caesar is subtly shown. In high schools and colleges most of this group of essays should be eagerly read; many of them are admirably suited for reference reading or brief topical reports.

W. L. Westermann.

MORET, ALEXANDRE. In the Time of the Pharaohs. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 310. \$2.00.

The wife of M. Moret, Professor of Egyptology at the Sorbonne, has translated into English a number of his popular articles upon archaeological work in Egypt and certain phases of ancient Egyptian history. The book gives an interesting impression of the course of the excavations in Egypt during the past half century, and the methods employed in the restoration and maintenance of the ancient ruins.

The chapter upon "Pharaonic Diplomacy" contains well-chosen extracts from the correspondence between Pharaohs Amenophis III. and IV. and the kings of the Mitanni, of the Hittites, and of Babylon. These are from the famous group of letters discovered in 1887 at Tell-Amarna. The meaning and evolution of pyramid architecture is made clear in the chapter entitled, "Around the Pyramids." Other chapters offer interesting material upon the stone-age period of Egyptian history, upon Egyptian magic, and upon the Book of the Dead.

The book is not a connected history, and does not pretend to take the place of the popular histories of Egypt, written by Breasted or Baikie. It does, however, offer, in more popular form, some of the material which is found in the more scholarly essays of Maspero, Wiedemann, and Niebuhr upon particular phases of Egyptian life. The illustrations are good, but not profuse.

W. L. Westermann.

MUIR, RAMSAY. A New School Atlas of Modern History. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xxiv. 48. \$1.25.

This short atlas, the author claims, is distinguished from other works of the sort by the emphasis laid on the physical basis of historical geography, by the insertion of only such names as the student will use at the period dealt with, by thorough treatment of the development of the British Empire, in addition to very full treatment of the United Kingdom, and by an introduction containing a series of comments on each map in turn, with a number of additional sketch maps and battle plans at appropriate intervals.

The introduction gives brief explanations of each plate and calls attention to the main territorial changes to be noted. Doubtless this will be of value, though most of this matter would normally be part of the lesson as taught by a competent teacher. The colored plates are arranged in four sections. The first section comprises ten plates showing Europe and the Mediterranean Basin at different dates, from the period of the Later Roman Empire to 1815. The second section is composed of thirteen plates illustrating the growth of the chief states of Europe. In this there are six maps of France, nine parts or the whole of Italy, four of Spain, and seven of parts or all of Germany. Then follows a section of thirteen excellent plates dealing with the British Isles, and last come twelve plates illustrating the history of European colonization. The author has been reasonably successful in his effort to produce a serviceable school atlas, though the book is distinctly inferior in number and quality of maps, paper, and mechanical makeup to the recently published atlas by William R. Shepherd. Yet in some regions, such as the British Isles, Mr. Muir's maps are much more numerous than those of the larger work. Considering the price, however, the present book is very satisfactory, and will be very useful to high school students.

Clarence Perkins.

PETRIE, W. FLINDERS. Egypt and Israel. New York, E. S. Gorham. Pp. 150. \$1.00.

In this study, published for the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, Professor Petrie has brought together much interesting information from archaeological and inscriptions sources bearing upon the relation of Israel to Egypt. It is decidedly a technical study, containing curious evidence of the continuity of Israelitic habitation and influence in Egypt, from the traditional migration from "Ur of the Chaldees" down to the

time of Mohammedanism. Upon the early period he is historically conservative, frankly accepting "documents and statements, wherever not modified or disproved by more certain sources." So Abraham appears as a personage as real as Hammurabi of Babylon, and the sojourn in Egypt is unquestioned. Definite evidence, however, from an Egyptian inscription forces the author to conclude that "some Israelites continued in Palestine during most, or all, of the time that the others were in Egypt."

The book seems, on the whole, much better adapted to the work of college classes engaged in a special study of the history of Israel, than for use in a High School library. It will undoubtedly be useful, also, for those interested in Biblical study.

W. L. Westermann.

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, Ph.D., EDITOR.

—"The Battle of Ravenna," 11, April, 1512 (*Nuova Antologia*, 1 February), by Senator Pier Desiderio Pasolini, contains a number of contemporary illustrations, chiefly of the artillery of the day.

—According to J. Haller, the controlling fact in the relations of "The Carolingians and the Papacy" *Historische Zeitschrift*, III. xii. 1) was the mutual need they had for each other.

—The new Quarterly Review of Russian History, Politics, Economics, and Literature, published by the School of Russian Studies in the University of Liverpool, aims particularly "at making accessible to the English public the work and views on various subjects of Russians of diverse opinions, and thus of giving some perspective of that enormous empire."

—In the Independent for 29 February, Ray H. Whitbeck, editor of the Journal of Geography, discusses with numerous examples "The Meaning of the Names of Places." "In this way (bestowing place names) people of a particular period or region or nationality, have, unintentionally, registered their nationality, or their likes and dislikes, or their political or religious beliefs, or have preserved the evidence of waves of popular feeling which at times pass over the country."

—"The Elizabethan Reformation" (*Quarterly Review*, January) is a careful review by Professor J. P. Whitney of King's College, London, of the numerous works upon that period which have appeared within the last decade under the names of such authors as Maitland, Oman, Stephens, Hunt, Innes, Birt, Gardiner, and Meyer.

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—In the Pennsylvania Magazine of History for January, Professor E. R. Turner, of Michigan describes "The First Abolition Society of the United States." It arose in Philadelphia from an attempt of some citizens to secure the liberty through the courts of an Indian woman being taken by her master from New Jersey to the South. The society fell into abeyance during the Revolutionary War, but was revived in 1784. "In 1787 a new constitution was adopted, the name was changed, and Benjamin Franklin was elected president.

—Teachers of Ancient and Medieval history will enjoy reading what Frederic Harrison has written about his favorite Greek and Latin authors in "Among My Books" in the January number of the English Review. He insists upon a wider reading in good translations, and upon reading the later writers as well as the strictly classical. "These later writers, whom 'scholars' despise for their decadent style, are full of novel ideas and new forms of art, which ultimately blossomed into medieval literature. To exclude all this is to ruin the sense of continuity in civilization, as Freeman so often and so justly insisted."

—In the Journal of Race Development, for January, Professor Ellsworth Huntington of Yale presents a striking theory of the relations of "Geographical Environment and Japanese Character," making a fresh application of the hypothesis of Professor C. J. Kullmer of Syracuse University, that all the leading countries of the world lie within the area of 'cyclonic' storms. "The remarkable case of Japan has been seized upon by Kullmer as the strongest possible reason for believing that the storm track hypothesis offers an adequate explanation of the peculiar distribution of intellectual attainments among the nations."

—The new Yale Review is not an official publication. "A feature of its contents will be signed reviews of current books within its field of literature, science, history, and public affairs." The leading article of the opening number (October) was upon 'War,' by the late William Graham Sumner, and abounds in the telling sentences of his well-known style. "War arises from the competition of life, not from the struggle for existence." "While men were fighting for glory and greed, for revenge and superstition, they were building human society. They were learning discipline and cohesion; they were learning co-operation, perseverance, fortitude, and patience. These are not savage virtues: they are

products of education. War forms larger social units and produces states. The great conquests have destroyed what was effete and opened the way for what was viable. What appalls us, however, is the frightful waste of this process of evolution by war—waste of life and waste of capital. It is this waste which has made the evolution of civilization so slow."

LIST OF BOOKS UPON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JANUARY 27, TO FEBRUARY 24, 1912.

Listed by CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.
American History.

- Ames, Edgar W. Readings in American History. (With bibl., etc.) In 2 vols. New York: C. E. Merrill. 167, 134 pp. Each, 25c.
- Atlantic and Pacific Transport Co. The Panama Canal Route. Baltimore: A. & P. Transport Co. 46 pp. Gratis.
- Bromberg, Fred'k G. The reconstruction period in Alabama. Mobile, Alabama: [The Author.] 18 pp. 25c.
- Buckelew, F. M. Buckelew the Indian Captive. [Story of his captivity amongst the Lipan Indians on Texan frontier.] Bluff, Texas: S. E. Banta. 112 pp. 50c.
- Carter, Clarence E. Great Britain and the Illinois Country, 1763-1774. Washington, D. C.: American Historical Association. 223 pp. (15 p. bibl.) \$1.50.
- Dyer, Albion M. First Ownership of Ohio Lands. Boston: N. E. Historical Genealogical Society. 85 pp. \$2.50.
- Everglades of Florida. Acts, reports, and other papers, state and national relating to the Everglades. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 208 pp.
- Fonderdon, C. A. A brief history of the military career of Carpenter's battery, [Civil War, 1861-1865.] Newmarket, Va.: Henkel & Co. 78 pp. 75c.
- Holyoke Diaries, 1709-1856. Salem, Mass.: Essex Inst. 237 pp. \$3.00.
- Jenkins, Charles F. Lafayette's visit to Germantown, July 20, 1825: an address. Philadelphia: W. J. Campbell. 49 pp. \$2.00.
- Learned, Henry B. The President's Cabinet. New York: Yale University. 471 pp. (22 pp. bibl.) \$2.50 net.
- Mead, Spencer P. Ye historie of ye town of Greenwich [Connecticut]; a revision and continuation of a history published in 1857. New York: Knickerbocker Press. 768 pp. \$5.00.
- Meany, Edmund S. United States History for Schools. New York: Macmillan. 587 pp. \$1.00.
- Morris, Charles. A history of the United States of America. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 602 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Murray, John O. The immortal six hundred; a story of cruelty to Confederate prisoners of war. Roanoke, Va.: Stone Printing and Mfg. Co. 355 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Myers, Albert Cooke, ed. Narratives of early Pennsylvania, West New Jersey and Delaware, 1630-1707. New York: Scribner. 476 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Nash, Eugene A. History of the 44th Regiment New York Volunteer Infantry, in the Civil War, 1861-1865. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co. 484 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Paxson, Frederic L. The Civil War. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50c. net.
- Putnam, Ruth. Dutch element in the United States. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 203-218 pp.
- Sioussat, Annie M. L. (Mrs.) Old manors in the colony of Maryland. Baltimore: Lord Baltimore Press. \$1.25.
- Stanard, William G. Some immigrants to Virginia [during the colonial period.] Richmond, Va.: Bell Bk. & Sta. Co. 79 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Sterne, Simon. Railways in the United States; their history etc. New York: Putnam. 209 pp. \$1.35.
- Stevens, Walter B. St. Louis, the fourth city, 1764-1911. St. Louis: S. J. Clarke Pub. \$18.00.
- Stibbs, John H. Andersonville and the trial of Henry Wirz. Iowa City, Ia.: Clio Press. 30 pp. Priv. price.
- Thorpe, Walter. History of Wallingford, Vt. Rutland, Vt.: Tuttle Co. 222 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Woodward, Sarah D. Early New Haven. New Haven, Conn.: Price and Adkins Co. 119 pp. 75c.
- Ancient History.
- Cumont, Franz V. M. Astrology and religion among the Greeks and Romans. New York: Putnam. 208 pp. \$1.50.
- Myers, John L. The dawn of history. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50c. net.
- Periploes of the Erythrean Sea, (The); travel and trade in the Indian ocean by a merchant of the first century. New York: Longmans. 323 pp. (4 pp. bibl.) \$2.00 net.
- Reisner, George A. The Egyptian conception of immortality. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 84 pp. 85c.

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- Smyth, Herbert W., ed. Harvard essays on classical subjects. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 284 pp. \$2.25.
- Jebb, Richard. The Imperial conference; a history and study. In 2 vols. New York: Longmans. \$10.00 net.
- Johnstone, Hilda. A hundred years of history; from record and chronicle, 1216-1327. [Source-book, English History.] New York: Longmans. 292 pp. \$1.60 net.
- Macmillan, Donald, D.D. A short history of the Scottish people. New York: Doran. 484 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Montgomery, David H. The leading facts of English history. Revised edition. Boston: Ginn. 444 pp. \$1.20.
- Notestein, Wallace. A history of witchcraft in England from 1558 to 1718. Washington, D. C.: American Historical Association. 442 pp. \$1.50.
- von Philippsburg E. Philippovich. History of the Bank of England and its . . . services to the state. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 297 pp.
- Ward, Bernard. The eve of Catholic emancipation. [Hist. of Eng. Catholics, 1803-1830.] In 3 vols. Vol. I, 1803-1812; Vol. II, 1812-1820. New York: Longmans. 277, 363 pp. \$6.00 net.

European History.

- Baring, Maurice. The Russian people. New York: Doran. 366 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Barry, Rev. William F. The papacy and modern times; a political sketch, 1303-1870. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50c. net.
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Medieval History.

- Jenkins, Hester D. Ibraheim Pasha, Grand Vizir of Suleiman the magnificent. New York: Longmans. 123 pp. \$1.00.

Biography.

- Daniel, James W. Speeches and Orations. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. 188 pp. \$3.50.
- Whitehead, A. C. Two great southerners, Jefferson Davis and Robert E. Lee. New York: American Book Co. 190 pp. 50c.
- Cuthell, Edith E. (Mrs.) Marie Louise, Archduchess of Austria. In 2 vols. New York: Brentanos. 400, 393 pp. \$6.00 net.
- Loliée, Frédéric Auguste. Prince Tallyrand. New York: Brentanos. 416 pp. \$3.50 net.

Miscellaneous.

- American Year Book. A record of events and progress, 1911. New York: Appleton. 863 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Anderson, Charles L. G. Old Panama and Castilla del Oro. Washington, D. C.: Sudwarth Co. 559 pp. (10 pp. bibl.) \$5.00.
- Giles, H. A. Civilization of China. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50c. net.
- Gooch, George P. History of Our Time, 1885-1911. [Europe and U. S.]. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50c. net.
- Holbrook, Florence. Cave, mound, and lake dwellers, etc. [For young students.] Boston: Heath. 130 pp. 40c.
- Walter, Richard, comp. A voyage round the world in the years 1740-4 by Lord Anson. New York: Dutton. 384 pp. 35c. net.
- Winter, Nevin O. Chile and her people of to-day. [Includes history.] Boston: L. C. Page. 411 pp. \$3.00.

Government and Politics.

- Bradley, Vernon S. The Wilson Ballot in Maryland politics. Baltimore: Lowenthal-Wolf Co. 45 pp. 50c.
- Burton, Theodore E. Corporations: their regulation and relation to the public; [a syllabus.] Chicago: La Salle Ex. Univ. 19 pp.
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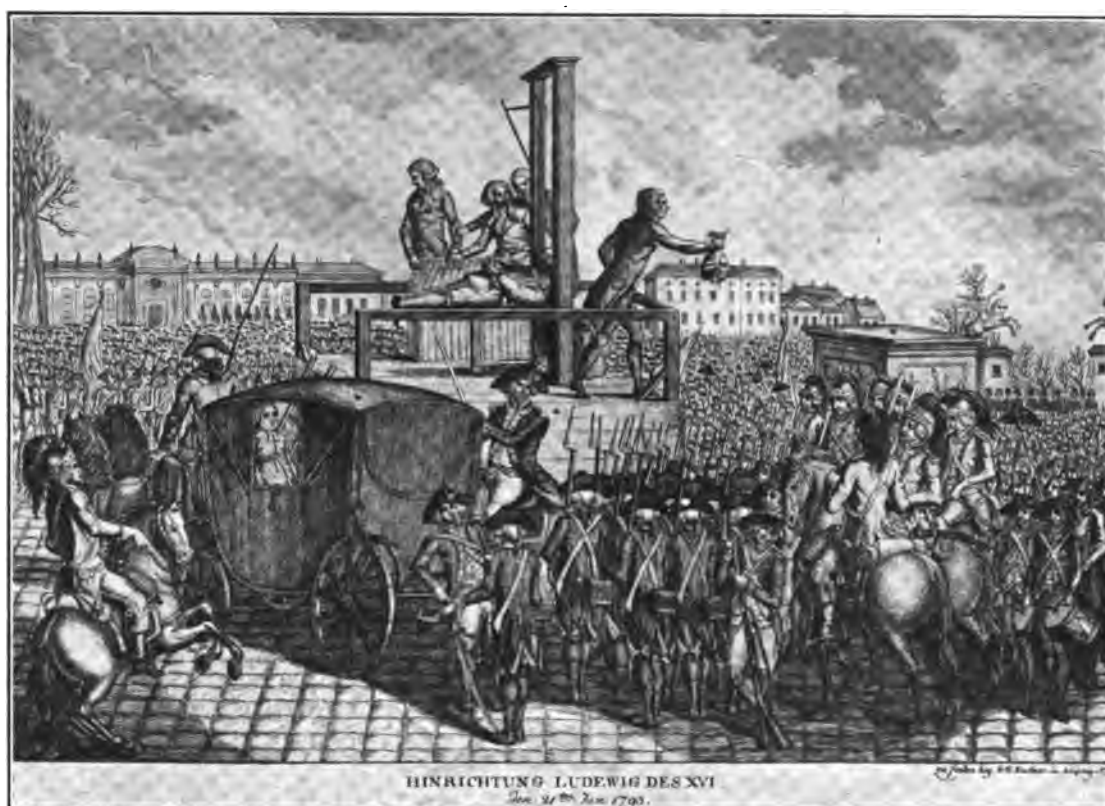
The History Teacher's Magazine



Volume III.
Number 5.

PHILADELPHIA, MAY, 1912.

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Execution of Louis XVI.

Louis XVI, condemned to death by a small majority of the National Convention, was executed on January 21, 1793, in the great square known successively as the Place Louis XV, Place de la Revolution, and (after 1795) Place de la Concorde. He was buried in the courtyard of the sacristy of the Madeleine. (See page 98.)

From a contemporary German engraving, crude, but faithful in detail. This picture will form part of a series of the French Revolution to be issued under the auspices of the New England History Teachers' Association.

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It is no idle question. A century ago history was hardly dreamed of as a discipline. Not two generations have passed since it first gained a foothold in our American colleges. I can myself remember its beginnings in our lower schools. Has it made good? There are still those who doubt. Some would discard it as unteachable. Some would under its name teach something else. "When history ceases to recount and begins to count," says in a recent book that arch-pessimist, Max Nordau, "then, and not till then, can it cease to be an art, a mongrel poetry, and rise to the rank of a science." "But then," he frankly adds, "it is no longer history in the customary sense; it becomes anthropology, ethnography, or sociology reinforced by biology, psychology, and statistics." If not a science, can history have a use in education? What is it good for, and why?

What has it ever done for you or me? When did you first make its acquaintance? Let me try to remind you. It was not when you began to study it in school. It was not when, years before, you were first enticed to read the story of some hero, some princess. It was not even when for the first time you heard the tale of Joseph or of Moses. Far, far back of that. Do you remember the very first story you ever heard in your life? Your mother told it to you; something about her own girlhood or of when your father was a little boy. But stories are not history. Aren't they, then? Why, the very word is only "history" cut short; stories are history child-size. When the world was in its childhood all history was story; and we are not so very, very grown-up yet. The idea that history, to be history, must first of all be true to fact is only a queer modern grown-up notion. It hangs together with that other fallacy that history is knowledge. To be knowledge is not

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fairies best, it was not because they were less real, but because they were more free—these little folk who needed no grown-ups, who broke so deftly through all that hemmed you in and lived in the open the life you fain would lead. They lost their charm when once you knew their fancies; but not before you had found for yourself in the realm of books other heroes, who squared better with life as you had come to know it, yet who, like these, freed you from hampering time and place and led, through larger effort, to ever loftier ends.

And so, with every step in your growth manward or womanward, as you chose your friends, your school, your fraternity, your church even—if you chose freely—for what they promised you of leadership or of companionship, so, too, in the world of reading you sought out always what brought you into fresher, closer, warmer touch with life—what opened new experiences, quickened new emotions, stirred you in sympathy to bolder deeds, to nobler self-devotion. You did not call it history. Your elders may have called it ballad, epic, romance, the drama, what you please. These are but the names of literary forms. Was not what stirred you in it the story of life, and of life that had been lived? Did it not, to satisfy you, have to be true life—true to every test by which you had learned to discern real life from mawkish sham? That is all that grown-ups ask of their history. The time came, indeed, when with larger experience of affairs you wanted even romance to take no liberties with what you had come to hold as sober facts; when your ripened imagination could at last fill in the background and the links which transform sober facts into real life. Then, exulting in the use of your new powers, you asked only for the sifted evidence or sifted it yourself, and, with the usual contempt of the sophomore for the freshman, denied the name of history to all beside. But was it not still, if still you listened to any voice of appetite within you, the story of life, of personality, of effort—life like your own, but opening to your own a wider living—which alone appealed to you; life not in its dull routine, but in the crises that revealed its worth and meaning? All else was only Mark Twain's diary on shipboard: "Got up, washed, went to bed."

And you were right. It is as rational to seek friends in the past as in the present—as feasible to travel into time as into space. Impossible to know the men and women of the past? What is it that has seemed to let you into the secret of any life? A tone, a random phrase, a detected glance, the flush of a cheek, the quiver of a lip? But these, if they live in your memory, even these are history. And have we less for those whose letters, whose journals, whose quoted words, whose gossiping memoirs, whose bursts of lyric self-revelation, whose changing portraits from birth to death, have been gleaned for us by the historian? Nay, how for these, if they lack in vividness, can we borrow and combine from the lives we have observed with our five senses; and how check our hasty inferences by the lifelike comments of friend and foe.

History is but the memory of us all. What friend, with past unwritten and future yet a mystery, can we know unaided as history may help us know the great souls of the past? What friend can we choose—aye, even the best of us—who is so well worth the knowing, who can bring us such warrant of helpful companionship, as these whom time has tested, these who have proved themselves equal to the world's emergencies? No wonder the great books of this world—the books that have made men men—have always been books about life: not "Calls to the Unconverted" or "Whole Duties of Man," but *Iliads* and *Æneids* and *Divine Comedies*, *Plutarch's Lives* and the *Lives of the Saints*, the *Confessions of Augustine*, the soul experiences of *Thomas à Kempis*, *Robinson Crusoe*, the *Progress of Bunyan's Pil-*

grim. The Bible? Yes, but for the life that is in it: for Joseph and Joshua and David and Daniel and the sweet story of the Christ. Not for its moral maxims—not until character had already made itself.

But this—this, you will tell me, is mere biography. Yes, but biographies, as the profoundest thinkers of our day—a Wundt, a Dilthey, an Eucken—have now for long been teaching us, are the very atoms which make up history. All history may be resolved into these. All history may well begin with these. But the same growth which drove us on from the fairy tale to the romance, and from the romance to the sober chronicle, may be trusted to make us soon impatient of the story of the single life. As life for ourselves grows complex through the conflict of mine and thine, we demand from our story that it show us the interplay of lives. Even biography must now give us both the hero and his times. As to our private life there adds itself a public life, we seek our inspiration in the story of public lives; and from our interest in a leader it is but a step to interest in the community he led. A city, a nation, humanity itself, are, after all, not organisms, but, at most, only organizations. They have no head, no hand, no heart, save those of the men and women who make them up; and it may well be doubted whether any soul was ever stirred to love of them, or even to thought of them, except through love of men and women taken singly and through thought of what to these the common weal has meant. Well says Professor Bourne: "If a boy be told to love his country, he might properly inquire, What is my country? It would not be enough to show him a list of the States, or the flag. . . . It is Washington's long struggle to found and organize the republic; it is Jefferson's dream of democratic equality; it is the deeds and words of men who from period to period guided public opinion and settled the national policy." Patriotism and the "enthusiasm of humanity" are, like all enthusiasms, contagious; but, if we would have them something more than a mere overflow of animal spirits, to die out with our youth, we must find for them sure nourishment where alone it has ever been found, in the life of the past—in the memory of our heroes and our martyrs. So fed, the study of national history and of world history will alike take care of themselves, and will be as fruitful in inspiration as in knowledge.

But this, some of you will object, is, after all, sheer individualism, and we are learning now to take the social point of view. Yes, but for society much more than for the individual is the history of personality of moment—and none are keener to see this than the younger leaders of the social movement. If only by sympathy with the leader, the group, mankind, the individual can be kept in step, how hopeless without such a bond must be the mass. What but the love of a common hero, the tradition of a common origin, the memory of a common experience, has ever brought together or held together a party, a sect, a people? How is a national character possible without a national history to embody and interpret it? What is Christendom, the commonwealth of nations, international law, civilization itself, without the common memories which make them ours? When as to these we disagree, we forthwith go asunder. Our common ideals and our common aims are but the echo of common loyalty to a historic past.

Yet let me not seem to urge a stagnant "historism"—a losing ourselves in the past at the cost of the present. The progress of the past should shame us on into the future. Heresy, too, has her pedigree; and thoughtful scholars have dated modern historiography from that sixteenth century day when old Sebastian Franck made complete his "Bible of History" by adding to his chronicle of the Church and his chronicle of the Empire a chronicle of the heretics, reck-

oning to these not only all the reformers and sectaries of his own day, but Augustine and Paul and Jesus himself, nay all who in past or present have listened afresh for truth. It was the message that spake, three centuries later, through our New England pleader for progress:

"By the light of burning heretics Christ's bleeding feet I track,
Toiling up new Calvaries ever, with the cross upon his back;
And those mounts of anguish number how each generation learned
One new word of that grand Credo which in prophet hearts hath burned
Since the first man stood, God-conquered, with his face to heaven upturned."

And I am not afraid that history, thus understood, will pass away. Whatever those who count themselves reformers may offer in its place,—whatever we may gladly and gratefully welcome at their hands,—the sound appetite of mankind will vindicate itself still, and the history that is read will be a history that inspires.

Why, then, need I take your time to set forth thoughts which are not new, and which to many of you, I fear, must savor of the commonplace? And why to teachers, if history, thus conceived, can teach itself? I should blush to do it, were it not, alas, that to these truths precisely, teachers have seemed to me most blind. Frederic Harrison has well said that, while some people can see no use in history, some can see fifty uses, and that it is easier to deal with the former than with the latter. Few writers upon teaching have denied the worth of history. Many have urged its importance to character. Some have even laid upon this all their emphasis. Herbart on this point spoke noble words, which I could wish engraved on every teacher's memory; and not three days ago I picked up a new book on educational ideals by Professor Bagley which as to this leaves naught to be desired. But the teachers' manuals in most general use, the teachers' training schools which I best know, most of the text-books likely to serve as models, lay their stress quite elsewhere. Nay, books and teachers I know in multitude that—out of sheer inert thoughtlessness for the most part, as I believe—would turn history into a mere generalizing science like its neighbors,—who would set it teaching politics, economics, sociology, and these alone.

Do not misunderstand me—I do not mean that history should be made ethics. Heaven forbid! Ethics is the science of morals. I do not mean that history is morals. Morals are *habits* of conduct. History is conduct itself, and conduct that never repeats itself. History never preaches, nor ought we to preach in history's name. But history is the story of human life and human effort; and our pupils are human beings hungering for that story with as sound an appetite as that which chooses and uses the food that feeds their bodies. It needs only that we put it within their reach. But within their reach it must be put. Time, too, they must have, to chew, to swallow, to digest it. Example and companionship they well may have, to spur and cheer them on.

Do you ask suggestion more explicit? I confess my hesitance to translate into practical precept the principle of

which I am so sure. I fear, to use a homely German phrase, lest I "throw out the baby with the bath." Translation is always hazardous. There was that young Cuban whom a dozen years ago I set at translating some of the Spanish documents of the Guiana controversy. Spanish was his mother tongue. His English was ample. Yet, when he first met the polite expression, "whom may God keep"—"my predecessor, whom may God keep," read the document—he translated, with perfect literalness and as perfect absurdity, "my predecessor, whom God may have." So might I be guilty of a *reductio ad absurdum*. There are among you those whose longer and closer acquaintance with the mind of childhood should fit you much better to outline the stages of its ripening. Yet, because it may help to make the principle intelligible, I am going, like my Cuban, to have the courage of my convictions, and shall enumerate roughly the qualities which it seems to me the history which is to satisfy appetite and to nourish character must progressively have.

First of all, then, and from the very beginning, it must be *live* history. I doubt if the child mind at first craves more than this. Fact it need not be, likelihood it need not have, but it must live. Beast will serve for hero as well as human, elf or giant as well as mortal; but life there must be, and action as life's token.

But in due time the budding soul craves more. With imagination, sympathy, too, begins to dawn. Beast and fay and ogre no longer suffice. More and more must the hero be like one's self—human, young, best of all a child like oneself. More and more the action, if it will satisfy us, must have in it purpose, effort, achievement, as well as life—not process only, but progress, and progress willed and earned. The history which will satisfy must be a *growing* history.

Thus far, and for long, interest centers in the single life. All but the hero is mere background. But to the normal child this singleness at length grows stale. Real life is not so simple, its problems not so tame. In the story, too, there must be variety, dialogue, plot, interplay of motive, clash of purpose and of interest. Be it romance or chronicle, comedy or tragedy, history must for us become *dramatic*.

For what seems to me the next notable step in the child's demand I am at a loss for a word. Even the drama has room in the foreground for only an elite. We weary of princes, heroes, paragons. We begin to doubt whether we ourselves and those we love are of the elect. Surely life does not normally run on such a plane. Where is the history that will make interesting plain people and prosaic times? Who has told of the great deeds of the common man,—of the great deeds of man in common,—of the self-assertion of the humble against the privilege of the great? History must now become for us plebeian, democratic, cosmopolitan—*catholic*, shall I say? It is the age when we prefer the history of peoples,—of civilizations,—of humanity.

But already in this demand there has begun to dawn a further. The ripening man has begun to feel the practical worth of history; and, as he feels within him the physical vigor born of a wholesome bodily diet and learns to suit his eating to his needs as an athlete, so, if he be left free, the history of his choice will more and more be that which stirs to action, and which fits him for it—the history which leads him into the life of his own time and place. History for him must be *stimulating* history.

And in the maturing mind, if its opportunities for study be fortunate, there soon begins to assert itself another discrimination. As the theme of history has been brought ever nearer to the actual, so now a like demand is made as to its materials. Some taste of a contemporary narrative, a letter, a document, quickens the appetite for the reading of what has actually played a part in affairs. Some discovered divergence between standard narrative and authoritative source unsettles faith in all that comes at second hand. Now journals, correspondence, memoirs, source-books, become the favorite reading. History at the best must now be *real* history.

Many, nay most, never go further in their craving. But to the genuine student, the mind grown fully ripe, there inevitably comes yet another need, the last—may I dare to say it, the least—of all. It is not enough that history be real. It must become wholly real. Every claim must be tested, every assertion verified, every document examined. Contemporaries and eye-witnesses, too, may err—nay, must err. Research must be exhaustive and unflinching. We must have not only the truth, but the whole truth and nothing but the truth. History, in the last issue, must be *true* history.

Live, growing, dramatic, catholic, stimulating, real, true; it is a rude and scanty outline, needing infinite adaptation, finding multitudinous exceptions at every stage (I doubt myself, for example, whether as things are at present most girls would pass unaided beyond the craving for the dramatic in history—or, at least, whether the catholic and the stimulating answer in them to such a need as in their brothers), yet, such as it is, I believe it roughly suggests the ripening of the normal and sane appetite for history. From one of these stages to another the growing mind may well be led—or, rather, invited—not left to that inertia which sometimes, even in childhood, finds itself content with what is already familiar and pleasant—willing to work out its decimals by common fractions, to cling to dolls when babies should be in order.

May I venture to suggest, too, in their order, the powers whose successive development seems to me the natural outcome of such a historical nourishment—imagination, sympathy, insight, judgment. To illustrate is tempting, but needless.

But is history, then, you will ask, never to be taught as *knowledge*? Knowledge, and knowledge of moment, it may surely be. Without it one can hardly mingle with one's kind. To converse—if one would entertain,—to argue—if one would convince,—to appeal—if one would move,—the world's experience would seem to show a knowledge of history indispensable. How in society, on the platform, at the bar, in the pulpit, it makes up almost the whole bulk of argument and allusion, anecdote and *bon mot*, precedent and illustration.

Yet even here, if one would win one's fellow-men by bettering them, not merely use them for his selfish purpose, it surely is of prime importance that one's fresh history be of that vital sort which tells on character. Less free are we to choose when we make our own, as we all must, that standard equipment of dates and facts which alone can make intelligible to us the allusions, arguments, appeals, of those about us—that equipment which gives our training continuity with the past's. This, however, ill chosen, we can not neglect. Only slowly, generation by generation, can it be made to give place to a better. One goes upstairs, as old Pope Gregory taught us, by steps and not by leaps. In all our study of history there will remain, too, as residuum—there will more and more be sought as end—that wealth of

varied experience which is knowledge in its most concrete and ripest form. It is in this, not in conscious generalization and induction—as an atmosphere rather than a treasury—that history should be most welcome to the students of the generalizing sciences which deal with man—politics, ethics, economics, sociology. Yet if, as teachers of history, we find occasion now and then to enrich our teaching with knowledge drawn from these neighbor studies, who can complain—provided only our study of these warrants our use of them? The danger is that these, thus suffered to poke a head beneath the tent, may little by little usurp the place of history altogether. Ah, how long was what called itself history in school and library, only theology “vindicating the ways of God to man” or “philosophy teaching by examples.”

But I have preached to you long enough. Let me only clinch my sermon with a text. It shall be from an old New England teacher of history:

“History studied as *science* tends to degenerate at once to anthropology; studied as *history*, its great value will be found in its appeal to the imagination, its widening of the sympathy, and its education of the moral sense.” For “history is the study of human life itself,—its action and its passion; of life on its personal, suffering, dramatic, rejoicing, heroic side; of its sin and holiness, its error and its strength, its struggle and its grief.”

FRONTISPIECE—THE EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI.

BY DR. ERNEST L. HENDERSON.

On January 15th, 1793, it was voted almost unanimously in the French National Convention that “Louis Capet, once King of the French,” was guilty of conspiracy. On the 18th it was voted by a small majority that the penalty should be death. There were then fierce debates as to whether the execution should take place at once or be delayed. On the morning of the 20th, three minutes after midnight, it was voted that the penalty should be inflicted the next day. A heart-rending interview took place that evening between the King and his family. Louis XVI showed great composure on the morning of his execution, and, as he alighted from the carriage at the foot of the scaffold, he bared his own neck for the edge of the knife. He drew back when the executioner wished to bind his hands, but submitted after the priest who was with him, Abbé Edgeworth, had said to him, “Sire, in this new outrage I see but one more point of resemblance between your Majesty and the God who will be your recompense.” Leaning on the arm of the priest, he mounted the steep steps, then suddenly darted across the platform (so Edgeworth, at least, relates) imposed silence by a look on the drummers who faced him, and said in a loud tone: “I die innocent of all the crimes imputed to me; I pardon the authors of my death, and pray God that the blood you are about to shed may never fall back upon France.”

The guillotine stood on the Place de la Revolution, now Place de la Concord, between the vacant pedestal of Louis XV's statue and the entrance to the Champs Elysées. It was twenty minutes past ten when Louis arrived at the foot of the scaffold. To tie him to the upright board, to swing the board on its pivot so that Louis's neck came under the blade and to sever that neck required only two minutes. As was customary with executions, the head was held up by the hair and shown to the crowd. Many rushed to the spot to dip their handkerchiefs in the blood or to gather it up in bits of paper. Any relic was eagerly sought, and the executioner felt obliged to protest publicly that he had not sold the hair. The body was buried in a grave twelve feet deep, and quick lime was thrown in, so that there might be no temptation to rob the grave.

The general attitude of the public seems to have been one of sorrow. “The women . . . in general were pretty sad,” writes a newspaper, and it even tells of insults and reproaches; these, however, it considers “pardonable in a frivolous, fragile sex still under the glamor of the last fine days of a brilliant court.”

The Value of London Topography for American Colonial History

BY CHARLES M. ANDREWS, YALE UNIVERSITY.

Allow me to express my hearty appreciation of the opportunity which this association has given me of talking very informally this evening, upon a subject which is very much of a hobby of mine, and not on that account, I hope, to be taken any the less lightly; for hobbies, as you all know, are excellent things to have. The study of history has progressed so rapidly in the last quarter of a century, and our energetic young doctors of philosophy are prying so inquisitively into so many of its more remote and far lying aspects that to possess a hobby in history that has not been encroached upon by them, is a feat worth boasting of. How far this subject of mine is likely to be of real historical service, I cannot certainly say, but I am glad to present it to you this evening as possessing the possibilities of service.

The value of sources, that is of documentary sources, has long been understood and appreciated. Perhaps, as is true of some other things, we have become so well content with what are called "original sources," that we forget to look behind the written or printed document into another world of no little interest and value to the historian. It was a great step in advance when the student divorced himself from the printed text of the secondary authority, and began his difficult but inspiring pilgrimage to the shrine of the actual document itself. Such pilgrimage was a veritable crusade in historical education. But this stage of progress, though exceedingly important and in many cases final, is not always the ultimate goal; because, as we are beginning to realize, there are many documents which cannot be adequately understood unless a further search is made. The architects of Europe have long known that to estimate at its full value the meaning and bearing of a record, such record must be studied in relation to its origin, that is, to the source from which it has come. This means that unless a document is studied in the light of its own history, of the circumstances under which it was drawn up, of the office or department, of organization whence it emanated, and of the activities that called it into existence, it loses a part of its value, and can no more be comprehended than can a sentence or paragraph that has been removed from the text of which it is an organic part. Every document has a connection with a world of its own, and it is our business to know as much of that world as we can.

In studying the environment and origin of a large number of documents, particularly of those that concern modern history, we find that there is frequently a background that is as important as the document itself. We find that it is necessary to go not only to the written or printed word, not only to the collection of which that record is a part, not only to the particular men whose official activities called the record into being, but also to the actual surroundings within which the record was written or produced. We need to study what I may call the topography of the document, the visible surrounding of room, office, building, street and city where the system was administered, and to which the document belongs. The particular topography in which I am interested is that of the city of London, and the particular documents in which I am interested are those that relate to our colonial history. Hence the subject of my address to-night.

London of to-day differs greatly from the London of our colonial period, yet the eye of the imagination can with some effort and care reconstruct the conditions of the past. London of the colonial period is one of the most important of the backgrounds of colonial history. From London came many of the men and officials that had to do with our settlement and growth. To London returned many of those who went back to the old country. More than all else, Lon-

don was the seat of the sovereign power that controlled us, and in it were the men and the departments that ordered the system established for the management of our affairs. London was the most important, the largest, and most magnificent of the cities in England that had to do with colonial history. From it governors were sent, from it their commissions and instructions came, from it came the king's orders and proclamations, his charters and deeds, and from it England's colonial policy was directed. To it the governors and others sent their letters and reports, their answers to queries and tables of statistics, and the thousand and one documents that have found lodgement in the British archives. A knowledge of London, therefore, is essential to any understanding of the machinery of colonial management, and a knowledge of that machinery is essential to an understanding of our colonial history.

English constitutional history from 1607 to 1783, a period of 175 years, shows us that during that time the administration and government of England underwent a greater transformation than at any time except in the nineteenth century. This transformation was at its height during the years from 1660 to 1714, and the changes that took place at that period were not merely changes in degree but changes in the fundamental idea of the constitution. They involved the transition from a medieval to a modern state. Before 1660 the king was the head of the state, the officials and departments were his servants and boards, at his beck and subject to his will. The government was essentially a personal one, with the king responsible for the finances, the army, the navy, and to a certain extent the law, as far as it related to equity and admiralty jurisdiction. Some beginnings of a more modern system were made in Charles II's reign, particularly as regards the treasury, but the real change did not begin until after 1688, and not in any large way till after 1702. From that time the king's personal control and prerogative were gradually eliminated, and soon there arose in London a great administrative departmental system, which governed England and the colonies. The importance of this statement lies in the fact that students of American history have assumed with too much complacency that during our colonial period, England's constitutional system was the same from the beginning to the end; they have not fully appreciated the fact that that system was passing through an evolution just as significant as that through which the colonies themselves were passing, and that it is impossible to understand English policy without understanding the changing conditions in England under which that policy was developed and put into practice.

London, the seat of this governmental transformation, was a very interesting place in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Recall for a moment the permanent features of its topography. The Thames flowing eastward to the sea makes a sharp bend as it approaches the city, turns north until it reaches the Charing Cross bridge, and then runs slightly southeast past the city and the docks. The London in which we are interested begins with the parliament buildings, lying just above the first bend, and ends at the Tower, more than two miles away. At the upper end where the river runs from south to north we find the visible embodiment of the old constitution, the king and the archbishop, state and church, Whitehall, Westminster and Lambeth. Around the king, in his palace are his officials, occupying chambers, rooms and offices as near to the person of the king as they can get, for they are his servants, and the servants of no one else. It is no accident that the heads of the government are located in Whitehall to-day; for Whitehall was

the king's palace, and historically those who did his business were his menials, occupants of his house. In one part or another of this palace, which ran from St. James Park to the River, and from Charing Cross to Westminster, lived the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chamberlain, the Lord High Admiral, the Lord High Treasurer, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Keeper of the Privy Signet, and here, too, were the Privy Council and the Secretaries of State and the Board of Trade. These officials were most of them housed and lodged by the king, and all of them were waited on at his expense, until as time went on they substituted so many pounds sterling for their "diet," and added the amount as a perquisite to their salaries. Thus in this little circle of Whitehall we have the outward and visible sign of the British system of government; there is its head, and brain, and heart.

Now follow the river to the eastward and you will reach another great centre of London life, another circle of great interest. I refer to the city. To-day the city has lost outwardly much of its original meaning, except on Lord Mayor's day. Few people seem to realize what the city is and enter it without knowing that they are passing within the boundaries of the oldest institution in England that still preserves its identity. The city was bounded originally by a wall, some traces of which still remain in stone, but more in the names that survive. This wall with its eight gates formerly defined the liberties of the city, but as the population overflowed the bounds, new limits were set up in the form of chains and bars, until the liberties and franchises of the city were defined not by the gates, but by the bars, from Temple Bar to Whitechapel Bars, that is, London within the Bars. All who lived without the gates but within the bars, on the north side and the south or Southwark side, were residents of the city of London.

In the city of London was the seat of business and commercial life. The heads of government were in Whitehall, but the business of government was in the city. By taking each department in turn we can discover that practically, though not absolutely all of the subordinate offices were located in the city, a mile and sometimes two miles away. Take the Admiralty, for instance. There were fifteen different subordinate offices, and they were all in the city, scattered about in various streets, in the west, north and east.

Between Whitehall and the city were two more centres of life and activity, but of a very different kind. From Charing Cross to Temple Bar there was a wide road that ran along the banks of the river, which was much wider than it is now, called the Strand. This road was unpaved, for it was not much used for transit, as traffic for pleasure and business was almost entirely by water. This road was a highway through what was in a sense open country, lined by fine houses of the nobility and gentry, and characterized by fields, green grass and trees. Many of the houses were splendid edifices, the houses of some of the famous people in England. This was the residence portion of London, and it stretched away to the northwest, gradually filling up as the population increased and as the growth of business led to the encroachment of mercantile interests upon the residence district. History has repeated itself in every city of importance.

The fourth centre and circle lay at the end of the Strand and beyond Temple Bar, in a region that was originally without the gates and in part without the bars. This was the land at first occupied by the Knights Templars, who at their dissolution gave way to the lawyers, a body of men who were rapidly increasing in importance and in prominence in the life of the government. Within this circle was the Temple—the Inner, Middle, and Outer Temple—and to the north were Lincoln's Inn and Gray's Inn, constituting the four great Inns of Court, while scattered about near by within the same area outside the gates and

between Fleet Street and Holborn were the nine Inns of Chancery, originally subsidiary schools for the training of lawyers. Thus within our fourth circle were the schools and offices of the law, just as in the city were the offices of business. And just as the heads of the government's business were not in the city but in Whitehall, so the great law courts were not located among the lawyers, as they are to-day, but were at Westminster, near the king—the Court of Exchequer, of Requests, the Chancery Court, and the King's Bench and Court of Common Pleas. The courts sat in Westminster Hall, or, as was the case with the Exchequer, in its towers, and each court occupied specially assigned portions of the hall, within railings, on raised platforms. There, legal business, generally done on separate days, was conducted with little privacy, open to the hearing and gaze of all, while at one time the remainder of the hall was taken up with booths and shops, where buying and selling of books, stationery and haberdashery went on. Westminster Hall, peaceful as it seems to-day, must have been in those days a place of much turmoil and confusion.

But one court was not there. For reasons easily understood but none the less interesting, the High Court of Admiralty was situated neither at Westminster nor among the lawyers. It had got among strange fellows, the ecclesiastical courts, which had their place just south of St. Paul's Cathedral. On St. Bennet's Hill, reached by a narrow way from St. Paul's Churchyard, was a gloomy group of buildings—chambers, hall and library—known as Doctors Commons. Here was the home of the doctors of civil and canon law, a college, admission to which was by permission of the Archbishop of Canterbury to those only who had received a degree of doctor of civil law from Oxford or Cambridge. Here were the ecclesiastical courts—three archiepiscopal courts of Delegates, Arches and Prerogative, one Episcopal, the Consistory Court, belonging to the bishop of London—and nearby was the Prerogative office in Dean's Court where special dispensations and special marriage licenses were obtained, and where wills were proven and filed. This was strange occupancy for an Admiralty Court, but the explanation lies in the fact that only doctors of civil, that is, Roman law, could practice in the Admiralty Court, and consequently the court had found it convenient to settle among the lawyers who could practice in it. The mountain had gone to Mohammed.

One more point remains to be stated. Away from Whitehall and yet outside the liberties of the city, was the Tower. The Tower was directly under the control of the crown itself, there were the armories, the offices of the ordnance board, and the mint. It had its own liberties, which extended outside the famous structure to include Tower Hill to the northwest and Little Tower Hill to the northeast, and upon these "hills," which were but parts of a single elevation of ground, were some of the important offices of government, and there, too, was located later Trinity House, that historic corporation which controlled navigation, and beyond was the victualling office, a great caravansary of offices, slaughter houses, and the like, very objectionable to residents who were so unfortunate as to live near by.

Now what is the importance of all this for American colonial history? In the first place, it shows us where and under what conditions the men worked who had a great deal to do in one way or another with colonial history. The Chancery, the Treasury, the Admiralty, the War Office—all were intimately bound up with colonial business. It is a gain if we can see these departments and officials at work. To the student interested in American commerce it is worth a good deal to picture to himself the customs house and the docks, the river and the shipping, and to know what happened to our tobacco, or sugar, or fish, or poultry, when it was brought, as most of it was, to London. It is worth a

good deal to follow the captains of our ships when they went to London, to see where they landed and to follow their business in delivering papers and boxes, and in making their reports. It is worth while to know where Baltimore lived, where the Carolina proprietors sat, where the various councils and the Board of Trade did their work, and to give reality to the dozens of incidents and activities that concern colonial history, and yet are mere names or vague shadows to most of our students. All this in itself would be worth the effort of attempting to understand London topography in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, even if there were not stronger reasons why the knowledge thus acquired would be of real value to us.

But there are other reasons. The physical and material conditions under which a great department works are often suggestive as to the efficiency or inefficiency of its operations. Take the Admiralty, for example. The Admiralty had many quarters—one after the other—before it became finally settled where it is to-day. But all its quarters were in Whitehall. At first the head of the Admiralty was the Lord High Admiral, but after many changes the Admiralty was finally put in commission in 1714. From that time on, except for a short time during the reign of William IV, it consisted of a first lord and three junior lords, who, after 1750, lived in a wing of the present building. Now the Admiralty has rather a peculiar history as far as the colonies are concerned. In the seventeenth century it is almost a negligible factor. Two fleets were in West Indian waters under the Commonwealth; one captured New York in 1664, and another in 1674. A famous expedition, the first of its kind, went to Virginia in 1676 at the time of Bacon's rebellion, and another to New York in 1690 after Leisler's rebellion. Except for the capture of New York, not one of the Admiralty ventures after 1660 succeeded in what it set out to do or arrived at its destination in time. The fleets—to Virginia, Jamaica and New York—were from five months to nine years late, and so far from being of any service to the colonies, the Admiralty were rather a hindrance than help. From this it is evident that matters must have been conducted in a most inefficient and unsystematic manner. With the Admiralty board at Whitehall, the ordnance board in the Tower, the Navy office in Seething Lane in the city, the Victuallery board at the end of East Smithfield, the different officials concerned in despatching a fleet were so far apart that mutual action was difficult and rapid action impossible. Instructions and orders waited days and months for execution. Jealousy and rivalry prevailed, and deliberate obstruction was not infrequent. The fee system helped on the delay; reports would be sent from one department to another, and there was always waterage to pay and perquisites at each office, which generally had to come out of the pockets of secretaries or clerks until the Treasury recouped them, which it eventually did, after taking an unconscionable time about it. There was very little ready cash lying about, and the want of it helped to drag business and to hinder the performance of duty. Procrastination was a common failing; replies awaited the convenience of the official addressed; the latter was frequently out—at cockfights or in the country—when the messenger arrived and orders were pigeon-holed. Between the ordnance board and the Admiralty relations were often far from friendly. The former was an older, and in its own eyes a more honorable board than the latter, and it would take no orders from any one but the king. Colonies, particularly in the eighteenth century, might beg for the means of defence, might ask, as they did ask, for arms and ammunition, or anything else that they needed; sometimes they got what they wanted, sometimes they did not. The Admiralty might complain as it liked, the Ordnance board acted when and how it pleased. Of course, it acted and frequently with effect, yet it was not

inclined to co-operate. Further, it often made curious decisions. It would furnish culverins and mortars and small arms and powder, but the colony must furnish bedding and clothing, and must build the barracks. When disputes arose, the time required to straighten them out would make the slowest official department of to-day seem like a whirlwind of energy. When weeks were consumed in getting orders executed between Whitehall and the Tower and months, not less than three—in getting answers from the colonies; we may not wonder that Bacon's rebellion was a thing of the past when the vessels and soldiers arrived in 1676, or that Sloughter arrived in New York two years after he was due there.

Much the same could be said of the military organization, but with one notable peculiarity. There was very little military organization in England. We talk a good deal about red coats as if they were instruments of British tyranny, but in point of fact most American students of colonial history know very little, if anything, about the actual working of the British military system. It is high time that we knew something about it, for even a slight acquaintance with it helps to explain many things. In the first place, there was no war department properly so called. The king was the head of what military organization existed, and the secretary of state—either one or the other, according to the location of the war—directed the war policy. At the head of the army, which before 1689 was only a temporary affair, raised for the particular object in hand and then disbanded, was the commander-in-chief—and there might be many such at the same time, or there might be none at all. At the side of the commander-in-chief was a secretary-of-war, who after 1700 may be called the head of the war office.

England had no standing army in colonial times, and you remember the feeling that was aroused because James II kept soldiers in arms at Hamslow Heath. There were no barracks because barracks meant permanency, and a permanent soldiery was anathema to the Englishman. When soldiers were raised they had to be billeted, and you will remember that in the Petition of Right there was a particular clause directed against billeting. The only permanent armed men in England were the guards and garrisons, the former of whom were at Whitehall next the king, for their business was to guard the king's person. They are there to-day—the great delight of nurse maids and street gamins, as Hare says. The garrisons were to defend the kingdom, and were stationed—a small and often decrepit force—at such places as Portsmouth and elsewhere. The secretary-at-war became an important official in the eighteenth century, when an army did exist, kept up from year to year by the passage annually of the Mutiny Bill. But he had nothing to do with the militia which was under the secretary of state for the southern department and the lieutenants of the counties; and nothing to do with the guards or garrisons which were under the direct command of the king. He had nothing to say about arms or ammunition which were controlled by the Ordnance Board, acting under orders from the king, or transport, which was controlled by the Transport Board, acting under orders from the Treasury, which also directed matters of supply. He did not pay the soldiers, which was done by an independent official, the paymaster-general of the forces, who appears first in the reign of Charles II.

Is it surprising, in view of the military situation, that we had no adequate military protection in the colonies until after 1756? Until that time the only soldiers in America were the guards and garrisons that were located at New York, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Bermudas, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, beginning with 1679, sent over and promptly forgotten, badly equipped and greatly neglected, the only one of whom that was of importance, so far as the history of the Thirteen Colonies is concerned, was the four

companies in New York. The establishment and allowances for these forces were fixed by the Privy Council, and there was a great deal of trouble connected with the problem of clothing and feeding them; for between the governors in America, the garrison's agent in England, and the Privy Council, they were often in a deplorable condition. This want of military protection in America is a significant phase of our history. It threw the colonies upon their own defence, and, generally speaking, they were able to take care of themselves. If England had had a well organized and efficient military and naval system, our colonies might have had a different story to tell, but she did not have it, and it is certainly worth while to find out why she did not. The reasons can be discovered only when we study the men and the offices, the sense of duty and obligation or the want of it, the prevalence of corruption and bribery and maladministration, and the total lack of co-ordination which existed in the methods of conducting business. And there is another aspect that some day we shall have to know more about if we are to understand our military history. Pitt gained a great reputation because he refused to receive, as paymaster-general of the forces, certain stoppages from the soldiers' pay, that had been deemed regular perquisites in the paymaster's office. We do not realize often enough, if at all, the position of the British soldier. We have been accustomed to think of him as wholly bad. Yet the men who fought with us in the French and Indian War and against us in the Revolutionary War never received actually any adequate pay for what they did. Their pay was nothing more than a retaining fee for purposes of loot; their real pay was the plunder and booty that they got in war. Against what pay was given them were all sorts of stoppages, for clothing, victualling at sea, transport and the like, which reduced the amount almost to nothing. The soldiers practically got nothing except their food. No wonder they committed excesses.

I have said something already of the difficulties of communication. This is a subject that demands separate treatment by itself. There was no regular postal service until the beginning of the eighteenth century, and none that was efficient and satisfactory until Pitt took hold of it in 1757. Communication was more frequently by merchant ship than packet boat. The governors of the colonies made up their letters and enclosures in packages and boxes, and gave them to captains for delivery. They sent them in duplicate, triplicate, and even quintuplicate, by different routes, in order that if one were captured or lost, others might arrive. Piracy was common, and despite the system of convoys which was carefully provided for, particularly in war times, vessels were constantly captured. Packets often had strange experiences. Some were seized, others thrown overboard, others handed on from captain to captain, still others went to the continent, and from there were returned to England by another conveyance, while another group might pass from captured ship to captor, which in its turn might be captured and the papers, because taken from prize ships, would eventually get into the Registry of the High Court of Admiralty. Even if everything went as planned, delays ensued. The captain might deposit the packets in the custom house and leave them there; he might take them himself to the Plantation office, which was in Whitehall, a long way from his landing place, and there he might hand them over to the secretary and receive his pay, which was not small, for the Board of Trade frequently complained of the cost of packets from the plantations. Such uncertain methods of communication, quite apart from the time involved, led not only to delays but to frequent losses. There are many gaps in the collections of colonial office papers in England. Such gaps are always to be regretted, but they are particularly to be regretted in the case of copies of colonial journals and assem-

bly proceedings, many of which are neither in this country nor in England, and these losses are probably due to the dangers of transit.

The system of communication had other aspects that made for exasperation in America. All the royal colonies sent over their laws for the royal confirmation or disallowance; Massachusetts and Pennsylvania sent their laws over under a special time limit. The time was reckoned from the date when the law was received by the Privy Council, but not infrequently the colony sent its laws to the Board of Trade directly. The board, knowing that the time limit began when the laws got into the hands of the Privy Council clerk, might keep the laws in its own hands, taking its own time about sending them over to the council board. They sometimes kept colonial laws in this way for three or four years. Massachusetts learned a trick or two after a while and sent her laws directly to the Privy Council, but curiously enough it sometimes happened, after 1746, that the laws got into the hands of the board first, because the captain in delivering them would either neglect the address on the packet or becoming confused in the Cockpit, where the Board of Trade office and the Privy Council office were at opposite ends of a long corridor, would get them in at the wrong door. So far as I can discover there were no office signs on the doors, and the confusion is not surprising. A sea captain unfamiliar with the offices or in the habit of delivering packets at the Plantation office might easily make the mistake.

Again, who wrote the letters that are signed by men whose names are conspicuous as directing colonial policy? Not always the man who signed them. William Knox or John Pownall wrote many of the letters which seem to have been written by Hillsborough or Dartmouth, or Lord George Germain. Who made up the reports and representations of the Board of Trade? Quite as frequently as not the secretary or the clerk of the reports; and though these men commonly acted under instructions from the board itself, they quite as frequently wrote the reports without instructions and the board simply signed them. I am convinced that many aspects of the policy ascribed to heads of departments represent the opinions of permanent secretaries or the traditions and precedents of the office. To find out about these things we must get into the offices and see how business was done, study handwriting and endorsements, and the actual daily routine of the staff.

I have now explained what I mean by topography, and as you have already seen, I am using the word in a special sense. I mean the administrative organization in all its aspects, the men and the rooms, the buildings and the streets—the physical conditions under which the work was performed. I shall have accomplished my purpose if I have pointed out to you that for some features of American colonial history we must look elsewhere than in America. We have been guilty too long of American nearsightedness. We must get over this habit of looking too minutely and too closely at things purely American if we are to solve the problems of American history that await a solution. Nor again can we write American history from our armchairs, with piles of printed books about us. The debates of parliament and the correspondence and biographies of leading men have too long been the stock in trade of writers on American history. As Miss Kingsbury has said, there is a great deal of arduous grubbing to be done, and no one knows better than she what that grubbing is like. Clio may be Olympian, but the Clio of to-day must come down from Olympus and delve and labor in a manner that would shock Lord Bacon, who deemed such methods of historical writing as beneath his dignity. I am hopeful of the future because the American searcher of to-day has already realized that there is no such word as "dignity" in his vocabulary. For it he has substituted the nobility of hard work.

The Certification of Teachers in the High School, With Special Reference to Certification in History

BY DR. DAVID SNEDDEN, MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

In all the civilized countries of Europe, and in most of the American states where public schools are maintained, there has developed a distinct system whereby public authorities may certify to the fitness of any person drawing public revenue for teaching in the public schools. In Massachusetts we have practically no system of certifying teachers, so far as the elementary schools are concerned. Most of the positions in the elementary schools are filled by graduates of the normal schools, and they are subject to standards and ideals directed by a public body, the State Board of Education. So far as public high schools are concerned, the determination of the fitness of teachers is with the local authorities principally. Where they have a considerable amount of such work, as in cities, they develop systems of testing applicants for teaching positions. In the smaller towns, however, where the school committees are neither equipped for, nor familiar with, the conditions attending the selection of teachers, it may frankly be said that in Massachusetts, with reference to the small schools, there is absolutely no official means of testing the fitness of teachers for their positions. The State Board of Education has a rather direct responsibility with regard to a number of the smaller high schools which receive money from the state treasury, and the State Board of Education, at the last meeting of the Legislature, asked to have a certification measure passed, which should provide a means of certifying any teachers who might apply for such certificates, and enabling the Board to require the possession of such certificates as a condition of teaching. It was interesting that during the debate in committee, and in the Legislature, the statement was made a great many times, "Why don't you extend this system to the entire state? Why not include the large high schools as well as the small ones?" It was thought that some responsible state board should have the power to test the fitness and qualifications of applicants for teachers' positions, at least in the state-aided high schools. The Legislature gave us all we asked for. Whether we shall be asked to do more, rests with the people of Massachusetts. For the high schools that are not aided by the state funds, the State Board has no direct and immediate control, though it has an indirect responsibility. We are very glad that the measure goes no further at the present moment, because many problems will be presented in trying to certify for forty or fifty small high schools in the state. We want your sympathy and your constructive suggestion in carrying out our proposed improvements. Next Wednesday there is to be a conference of the heads of colleges and two other representatives from each to give us some counsel as to the preparation of a proper certification measure. The State Board realizes that any system of certification has to pass on the mental qualifications of applicants, and whether or not it will enable us to say of this one, "He is worthy," it will at least enable us to say of certain applicants, "They are unworthy, we shall not let them be considered."

The second and most important object of a system of certification is that if it is carried out under intelligent management it should progressively set standards for teaching positions in the public schools toward which colleges might approximate. Over a series of years, an important function of the Board is that it shall see that instructors in high schools are held to definite standards of preparation; and to hold out ideals to the students, and to progressively elevate the quality of those who are undertaking so important a

work as teaching in our public schools. Hitherto the system has been such as to actually discourage such elevation of standards; because if, of two college or university trained teachers, one had not elected the courses necessary to properly prepare him for his work, and the other one had so elected, there was no guarantee whatever that the better qualified person would obtain the position, since so many other elements entered into the selection.

Now, I mentioned a second point; whether the administrative agencies in charge of this certification could meet their responsibilities. My own personal conviction is that no system of written examinations will accomplish these purposes. I have long since ceased to have very much faith in written examinations as a means of testing teaching ability or any other kind of ability on which the world puts a premium. Consequently if our Board cannot do better than hold written examinations and then maintain people to mark the papers, and issue certificates on that basis, the second object might not be attained, even though in a measure the first would be. My own feeling is that somehow or other, representatives of the public school system of the state, or the public authorities should be able to enter into relations, and to co-operate with the institutions preparing teachers. Of course, in our state all these are private institutions. I feel that they should enter into co-operation with these institutions, so that between them, by a system of credentials and statements and other evidences, we should be able to certify the properly qualified teacher, the growing teacher, without subjecting that person to written examinations by an external authority. We are now working on an arrangement by which we hope to be able to receive from any college in the state, regarding a given individual, statements from the instructors responsible for his education, on the basis of which we can say that the person is qualified to teach in our state-aided high schools. This is going to put a very large and difficult responsibility on the Board, and much responsibility on those of you who prepare teachers. It seems to me that it is along that line of co-operation that, looking forward over the years, we can bring teaching in this state to the level of a profession. Teaching, not yet regarded as a profession by the vast majority of people. Do not let us pretend that it is. Those teachers who, after years of preparation, reach the better positions, have begun to present some of the aspects of a profession, to which fact such a gathering as this testifies. But if teaching were where it should be, this gathering should be five or six times as large as it is. Now, I cannot go into details as to our methods. Those are still matters of discussion. Fortunately, our experiment is to be tried on a very small scale at first. We do believe that the colleges of Massachusetts having graduates who expect to go into teaching positions will co-operate with us, telling us what work they can do. We need generous and enthusiastic aid, and recognition of individual merit; and if the Board will set broad standards and not narrow ones, it seems to me that by and by we shall have a system that will be worth while. The result will be that a young man or young woman deciding in the junior or senior year to prepare for teaching in a certain field, will know about what is expected of him in standards and extent of preparation, and will take steps to fit himself accordingly. You and I cannot hope to be of the best service to the State of Massachusetts unless we perform such service as that. We do not want the colleges in the attitude of saying of their

graduates, "Take them or leave them." We do not want the Board holding examinations which are open to everybody, whether competent or not. That is a mechanical and very unsatisfactory method of building a teaching profession. If we can grasp these principles well I think we shall get along. We should have in each city some body to pass on the qualifications of teachers; if it desires the services of the Board, it is at the service of the Commonwealth. Because there is no direct responsibility, the Board is not looking for work except where the law authorizes it to expend money, and there the Board does feel a very keen sense of responsibility for the quality of the work and services rendered the state.

If I may be permitted, I would like to say a few words about some of the more specific problems confronting us, the same as I would say if discussing the training of teachers, because the two things, to my mind, go together. In the first place, as to small high schools, it is a fact that our teachers cannot be specialists to any great degree. There are seventy or eighty high schools in Massachusetts that have only two teachers apiece. They may look small to us, but they are big institutions in their own agricultural communities, and it is our business to make them very effective. Many of the ablest men in the country have come from these small schools, and owing to the conditions of life in the country, and its hardy influences, it is reasonable to suppose that a great many of the important men of the future will come from there. But the teacher who teaches in a two-teacher high school will teach more than one subject. He must be prepared to teach, for example, History and English, and perhaps German or something else; and it must be the business of the colleges and of the authorities in charge of the certification of teachers to recognize the facts as they are in this direction. We cannot have history specialists or Latin specialists in these small country high schools. We must have bright and intelligent men and women, and fortunately from some points of view, most of them will always be very young; we must have them qualified to do good work. I myself in all my discussion, and as soon as I get to it, in my writing, propose to set before the teaching profession a distinct, clear goal; the same goal as that held by California; no person in California to-day may enter a high school as a teacher who has not graduated from an approved college or university, and taken one year of graduate work and specialized preparation for teaching. If we can reach that standard, and we can in five years if we get together, and refuse to consider anyone eligible unless he has had a year of graduate work, focussed toward the particular field of teaching, which might be defined as English and History, or History and German—because the small school must be considered—if we can do that, it seems to me that then we shall have done much towards removing high school teaching out of the field of casual labor, as it so often is now. So much for standards. In the meantime the Board proposes to ask—this will be the subject of the conference next Wednesday—that any person applying to the Board for certification to teach in the state-aided high schools shall present at least two majors and two minors—these are explained in our circular—a major is defined as six year-hours in a particular field, and a minor as three year-hours in a particular field. Our certificate indicates the subjects in which the holder is qualified to teach. If a person says, "I am a Harvard graduate; I want to teach History and English and German," we shall ask if he has had the required number of year-hours in those subjects, and if so, the work may be approved, and on the basis of that can issue a statement that he is qualified to teach. We expect to impose no additional test at present. We propose to set relatively low standards at first, and then as conditions warrant, work up. It simply means that the History Department of Harvard or of any other institution that is interested in seeing its grad-

uates teach will tell us of a given candidate that he has had so many years of history. We have no reason to think he cannot teach the subject as it is ordinarily required. Perhaps some officers of the Board can confer with the history teachers of the college, and determine what would be the most effective preparation in that field. We realize perfectly that work in college in History or English in the earlier years can have no bearing on teaching. I propose that those who are going to teach should be directed to take certain courses, designed primarily for such persons. And in course of time, we trust it is not an extravagant hope that we shall be able to require the candidate also to have had adequate training in teaching history, in the pedagogical problems of the subject. We hope that time will come, and not too far in the future, when if such a candidate says he has not had such training, we can say to him, "Go back, and give a little time to the study of teaching history. There is an art of teaching; equip yourself a little in it." At present, we do not propose to ask for that. Many institutions are not prepared to give it. In the course of time they will.

Of course, you know that history teaching in high schools is one of the newer subjects. We have had great expectations of the subject. You may talk to the average citizen, and you will never find him opposed to it. He may be opposed to a language requirement, or even to a mathematical requirement, but never to the teaching of history. He has faith that the results are good. You know there has been a great deal of disappointment with this subject, because we have no satisfactory pedagogy. I should like here to indicate to you what is one of the largest problems that a state authority has to face in the formulation of standards of teaching ability. I find it myself coming up in every department of our work. It is a pedagogical question. The question is this: When a subject is taught in the schools, what is it taught *for*? We have often been handicapped in the past by conditions which in effect indicated to us this conclusion: You are teaching this subject with the one purpose of getting by such and such an examination, a college entrance examination, or Mr. Somebody's examination over there. Most of the work in history has had its character shaped and determined, I believe, by college entrance requirements as in other subjects.

But from a valid educational point of view, it is never sufficient to say that we teach a certain subject in order that the pupil may pass a certain examination; nor even in order that he may know some history. There is a question beyond that, ladies and gentlemen. You teach history to the boy or girl that he may know history, for what purpose? why should he know history? It is a curious thing that the gap between my first question and my second is to-day a gap which is a chasm, not only a chasm, but one filled with clouds; and we cannot see the bottom or the further side. When you say you teach history in order that he may know history you are setting up a definite goal. But when I ask you, why should he know history, no one has told us. We do not know. We do not know why he should know some history, and until we do know, and until we can formulate our purposes, our methods and courses will be very lame and halting. The public to-day has great expectations of history teaching, but what is it the public expects from it? It is difficult to phrase it. I have no doubt you feel it in general terms yourself. The first suggestion would be that it encourages good citizenship and manhood, that it helps prepare our future citizens for their duties. The difficulty is that we do not know how our history teaching functions in that way as a matter of scientific knowledge. We only guess that it does. We have no valid standards as to materials or methods in teaching history. We are simply beginning at the wrong end of the matter. On the whole, we should reverse the order. Your chairman knows that this is my pet hobby, and one that perhaps ought not to be mentioned

in polite society. What I mean is this: That the real purpose in the study of history—no, there is no purpose in the study of history as such, but one of the real purposes of education is to get the mind into an understanding, an intelligible and idealized grasp of the social environment, which is suggested by Continental and American History to a certain extent. To get him to see in perspective the social environment. Now, the social environment has length and breadth. We may call the length chronological order and the breadth geographical, if you please—longitude and latitude. Now, of course, no person knows his own social environment until he knows it in perspective, and can see into the distance, and by that process get his relative position. Our duties are to teach history, and also to teach something that has not been named, but which I call sociology, not sociology as defined by the sociologists; it is the carrying of the youth back into all sorts of beginnings, into places and times when things began, and where social forms were elementary. But the young person goes back there on the basis of his and the teacher's contact with the local situation. I cannot but help think it is a mistake to teach Greek and Roman History as we do, thinking it is education.

Is it not true that a right system of certifying teachers should involve a co-operative attitude on the part of all those who have anything to do with the preparation of teachers or their qualifications, in an official way? By and by, through that co-operation, we should be able to set standards of increasing competency. That will involve a close study of the work we have to do. One of the great mistakes of the past was that the person who taught history was not studying the work he had to do. His work was not that of the historiographer, primarily, but that of the teacher of history. No one can teach without knowing history. Teaching and study are different things, but it seems to me that we could set up standards, and out of it all should come a more fruitful work in the high schools themselves; that more and more every teacher in the high school would know how to teach her class on some basis that is psychologically defensible. At present, we do not know that they do. This is a fruitful field of research at the present time. More and more I hope we shall have every young man and woman knowing what they expect to accomplish—not teaching Algebra because it is Algebra, but because it is a step in a large purpose of which they have a clear conception. Now, ladies and gentlemen, I have not spoken altogether on the certification of teachers, but I have indicated the policy the State Board has in mind in this very important plan for the certification of teachers. I thank you for your attention.

From the Point of View of the College

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM MACDONALD,
BROWN UNIVERSITY.

We are, I suppose, in the somewhat humiliating position of endeavoring to devise a plan by which we can elevate to the dignity of a profession that which is not now such. I myself do not see how the business of secondary school teaching in the United States is to attain to the dignity of a profession until there is a much improved method of selecting teachers, a much improved condition in regard to tenure of office, and a much improved condition with regard to compensation.

I ought to say at the outset that it seems to me it is not a primary purpose of the college to prepare students of history to teach history, and that the history teacher in college

who sets that purpose before himself as a primary aim is in difficulty from the beginning. I think that the object in teaching history in a college, from the standpoint of both the instructor and the student, is simply that of teaching the subject, of imparting as much knowledge of history, in the particular field in which one may be working, as is practicable under given conditions; and that this is, for all practical purposes, the only object at which the history teacher should aim. I can see no more reason why the college teacher of history should undertake pedagogical methods of teaching history, or adjust his course so that those who finish will be to that extent skilled in teaching, than I can see why the teacher of English should teach composition and literature with regard to the fact that some who are in his class are going to become magazine and newspaper writers; or than why a teacher of Latin should teach Latin with special reference to those of his pupils who expect to become Roman Catholic priests, and will have to speak it. I feel that any attempt to make that adjustment will fail from the beginning.

In the first place, the average college professor has never had any training in pedagogy; he often has some distrust of the subject, and even a good-natured, but rather deep-seated, contempt for it. If there be any such thing to-day as a science of pedagogy, the war and clash of weapons and the crimination and recrimination that go on between the professors of the subject somewhat obscure its nature. And until the professors of pedagogy in our schools and colleges get together and show a little more harmony and agreement as to what is worth while in that department, I, as a college man, must decline to have anything in particular to do with it.

I must go further, and say that it does not seem to me to be the primary object of history teaching in either college or secondary school to enable the pupil to understand or appreciate his social environment. That is making the stress fall on the wrong point. It is making the study of history bear almost wholly upon the present and the future. It seems to me that the thing we lack in this country, in our colleges and universities, and are coming to lack most seriously in secondary schools, is what may be called an interest in intellectual things—in things that have been, or that have been done or thought, *because* they have been, or have been done or thought, and are a part of the record of the progress of the human race. To teach history, political economy, literature or any other subject with a view to "envisaging one's own immediate environment" is to throw about the teaching of these subjects very much the same obscuring atmosphere that theology has often thrown about other subjects. It is to be always drawing attention to what you are to become—not to what you have been. If the teaching of history in secondary schools has no better object than a mere practical application of this sort, then the sooner it surrenders its place in the curriculum, the better.

Here in New England—to turn to the matter of the certification of teachers of history—we have to remember that we are in a somewhat peculiar situation as compared with the rest of the country. The certification of which Dr. Snedden has spoken is such as will proceed, in one form or another, from a public authority; in this instance, a state board. Eventually it would come to that in most states. But in New England we have to remember that our colleges and universities, with few exceptions, are private institutions, and that between them and any public authority there is neither legal nor corporate relationship, and to a large extent there never will be or can be. We do not, I suppose, seriously apprehend that the time is near when the State of Maine will say what Bowdoin College shall teach, or how it shall teach it; or when the State of New Hampshire will dictate to Dartmouth College in such matters. Conse-

quently, any working relation which exists between the colleges and the public authorities must be of a purely voluntary nature. It can never be either corporate or legal, save perhaps in the case of institutions yet to be established.

The question, then, is as to who shall issue the certificate. Granted that it is a desirable thing in itself that the teachers of history in secondary schools shall receive some official certificate of competency, who is to issue it? Personally, I believe that any system of issuing certificates which does not involve a sound and thorough examination in the subject will not be satisfactory. No system based on character, or attainments, or what not, but which omits the rigorous discipline indispensable to a robust intellectual life, will be worth the trouble. Who is to administer that kind of a system? I must confess, as a college man, to much distrust of a system not in practice administered by college men. With the utmost respect for boards of education, I question the competency of such boards as in twenty-five years I have happened to know to apply proper tests. What assurance has the historical faculty of Harvard University or of Brown University that the state board is competent in the historical field, particularly when, as in the case of history, we are dealing with a subject not yet long or universally recognized? We could be assured of more competency in mathematics, for few members of state boards would have the temerity to set examinations in that subject, but would almost certainly seek expert aid; but I never saw many members of a state board of education who did not feel themselves competent in such subjects as English and geography and history.

We have a further question about the relation likely to exist between any public certifying system, granted that it is impeccable, and the historical faculties of the colleges and universities. Every college teacher of history, I suppose, has experience of the fact that his students, as they get along in the junior and senior year, or begin to look forward to graduate study, come to him with the hope that he may be able to help them. With a formal certifying system in force, a delicate situation is likely to arise. It is entirely possible, for example, that a departmental faculty in Harvard University might deem Mr. A. a competent person to teach in a secondary school, while the Board of Education might take a different view. Such a difference of opinion would be unfortunate, but it would be almost certain to appear unless the standards set by the board were, to all intents and purposes, the standards of the university. How is it proposed to get out of that difficulty? California, Illinois and several other states have so adjusted their educational systems that there is more or less of legal relation between the lowest and highest schools. We do not have that in New England. And, particularly, if the board should undertake to lay stress on pedagogical instruction in history, with the present temper of the historical fraternity, I think that a line of cleavage would presently be discovered between the colleges and the state educational authorities.

Permit me to repeat that, to my mind, the main thing is that the teacher of history should know history. The great trouble is that so many attempt to teach who do not know the subject. It is high time that colleges, as well as schools, demanded a higher degree of competency in their teachers. Too frequently young men are set at teaching in our colleges who are unequal to the task, and whose students suffer in consequence. But the remedy is not so much to provide them with pedagogical equipment or a state certificate, as it is to insist that they know a great deal more of the subject which they are expected to teach.

In the matter of certification of students for teaching positions in history, the Department of History at Brown University has for some years had the following system: A

three-hour course throughout the year in general European history is a required subject for all students. As electives they are offered courses in English, European and American history of different periods, together with seminary courses of elementary research. No indorsement is given to any student who has not had at least two three-hour elective courses throughout the year, in addition to the three-hour required course; and one of these electives must have been either American or English history. The student must also have maintained a creditable standard. We use the following system of marking: "P" is a passing grade, "C" is the credit grade, and "H" is for excellent work. No one who does not maintain an average mark of "C" can receive any certificate at all. We call such an indorsement a minor certificate, and it is the least indorsement we will give.

If the student wants what we call a major certificate, he must add to the above requirements one elective course, and one course in research. The major indorsement, in other words, represents fifteen hours throughout the year, or one full year of college work in history, with an average grade of "C;" and one of the courses has to be a course of research. Moreover, we do not give either the major or minor certificate to any student who seems to us obviously unfit to teach. Of course it is not possible to have a fixed standard in this last matter. I have a number of times said to students who had obvious physical peculiarities, that I should feel it my duty to state to the principal of a school that there was this peculiarity. If the student has qualities not likely to be changed, which unfit him for teaching, and which seem to make work in other lines advisable, we do not give him the certificate. Further, we decline to address letters of any sort "To whom it may concern." We are willing to write an indefinite number of letters to persons whose addresses the applicant has obtained, or whom we think may be of assistance to him; but we do not write general letters. Finally, we never assume to guarantee that the student will make a good teacher; we wash our hands of responsibility for competence in that direction. All that we say is that, so far as we can see, he is fitted; that he knows enough to teach the subject, and that we can see no reason why he should not become a good teacher. That is as far as the department touches the pedagogical problem.

Standards of Certification Outside of New England

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON,
NORMAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

As I understand it, my function in this discussion is to recall to our memory some of the standards of certification for high school teachers that are being maintained elsewhere than in New England. This is in order that we as good students of history may determine what we should attempt only after we know that has been done. As a general proposition, the standards are being raised all over the country, if I may judge by the reports that have been coming to me. To be more accurate, the requirements are being made more difficult. I say, to be more accurate, for while there is a good deal of truth in Mr. Dooley's remark that all education is good if it is disagreeable, I am not sure that an eligibility requirement is improved by being made burdensome. In my discussion the central ideas will be the time necessary for the preparation of teachers for their work, and the persons who ascertain whether this preparation has been made, that is, whether the time has been well used.

It will be possible in the time at my disposal to do nothing but recall to your memory a few of the things with which you are acquainted; it will be impossible for me to describe the conditions in even one place to those not already somewhat familiar with the question. This is especially true because of the lack of accurate terminology in which to discuss any educational question. One speaks of an examination with disparagement, as did a person who recently sent me one of the best answers to a list of questions I sent out. But whether we approve of an examination depends entirely on the attitude of mind, the type of training, and the fund of information that we attribute to the examiner who conducts it. Of course the expressions high school graduate or bachelor's degree mean almost nothing unless we know the institution not to say the teachers concerned. When we ask for a state law to raise the standard of teaching, they give us a law such as I will quote: "Each school must employ at least one teacher legally certified to teach book-keeping, civics, general history, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, including plane surveying, rhetoric, English literature, Latin, including Caesar, Vergil, and Cicero, and the elements of physics, chemistry, including chemistry of the soils, botany, geology, and zoology, including entomology." Of course, if a high school candidate is to be examined in all these things I disapprove of the examinations, and of the examiner and of everything else connected with such a farce. I am going to devote my time to recalling to your attention the conditions prevailing in Prussia, France and California, so far as I can. Most that I have to say, except my errors, has been better and more fully said in an interesting book published this year by Mr. J. F. Brown through the Macmillans.

When German schools are mentioned, one at once thinks of thoroughness, formalities, conservatism, discipline, accurate information, uniformity. Furthermore, one thinks, as did a friend of mine in a recent conversation, of checks on the free use of initiative, checks on the inspiration of youth. To my remark that the average candidate for a gymnasium position is 27 years old, he waxed eloquent about the hopeless future of a country which checks the activity of youth in this way. Some persons do not understand how one can spend so much time getting ready to teach a secondary school, but the matter is simple; 3 years in the elementary school, 9 years in the high school, 1 year in the army, 5 years in the university, 2 years of training in the theory and practice of teaching. This allows for very little side-motion, very few changes of plan, not much sickness or loafing; it also requires in many cases considerable self-sacrifice on the part of some one, for there is some expense to be met, and a long delay in entering upon a career. Of course, the candidate need not have spent five years in the university. Three years is the lower limit. Yet, so far as I can learn, the average is over, rather than under five years. It is true he probably takes his doctor's degree as an incident to preparing to teach in the secondary schools, but that is of no special significance. The doctorate is merely a mile-stone in his course, it is not a goal. It isn't something to be worked for in particular. During the five years he becomes a professional man—not professional in the sense of a professional golf player, where money-making is the positive difference, but in the sense of the scholar where money becomes the negative difference. He gets it on his way to his education as a boy gets P. B. K. as an incident of the college course. For a long time, I tried to convince myself that the charge that Americans think more of money and use it more regularly as a standard of achievement than the Europeans do, was a slander. But I have never been able to convince myself completely. I say this with hesitation, and I should be grateful if some one will convince me that I am wrong. The atmosphere in a German university seems to me to breed ideals of a different sort from most of our own.

When the student of 19 leaves the secondary school in

Prussia, he is disciplined in a way that few of our schools discipline their students. He can use his mind as an athlete can use his muscles. He knows what he can do with it. It is under his control. Incidentally, he has a considerable store of information. When he leaves the army after the one year which he must serve, his character has been still further disciplined. I am no advocate of militarism, but I wish our boys had to go through some experience at some time in their lives which would teach them to be orderly and systematic; and that authority is to be obeyed because it is authority. No one can command who cannot obey, and the year in the army is not the least useful preparation of the German secondary school teacher.

But this is all very general, what is the legal requirement for certification? It is an examination or a series of examinations and tests. One may not be examined, however, until he has graduated from the high school—no pleas of private study and self-preparation. And he must have been in the university at least three years. His biographical sketch with documentary evidence to support it must show that he has used his time profitably. Of course, he has in his preparation the guidance of definite knowledge as to what is to be expected of him, which our young men have not. With this preparation, he may be accepted as a candidate. He is then assigned two theses for written discussions, and he must not devote more than 16 weeks under ordinary circumstances to the preparation of them. If these papers are accepted, he is admitted to a written examination, the successful passage of which leads to the oral examination.

Now there are two things to be especially noted about these tests—first, they are conducted in large measure by university professors and wholly pervaded by the spirit of university scholarship. The examiner who questions the candidate in history is likely to be a scholar with an international reputation, and will conduct such a test as a self-respecting master of his subject can subject himself to without humiliation. I leave comparisons with some other examinations with which we are familiar to your imagination. In the second place, this examination is a personal affair. Only a few can come up at once—two or three—and each one is as thoroughly tested as if the welfare of the German Empire depended on the results. When these tests are over, the examiners are convinced that the candidate has the qualities of mind and character that will make a good enough teacher. But youth is to be still further impeded. The candidate may know a great deal without knowing how to teach. Therefore, now that he has shown that he has the grounding to undertake the task, he is to be taught how to do it. He is required to serve an apprenticeship of two years, the first without pay, and the second with more or less salary, depending on the amount of work he is permitted to do. The first of these years, his seminary year, is largely taken up with the theory of pedagogy, with enough practice in teaching under supervision for him to observe the theory at work. Each week he meets with the seminary for a two-hour discussion of the theory and practice in the light of his experience; and before the end of the year, he is required to submit a written discussion of some aspect of his work. During the second year he is to an extent in the place of a substitute teacher under direction and supervision. If his work during this year is satisfactory, he is granted the full license. He is then from 25 to 30 or more years old. But he is sure of a position for life, with a salary large enough to support "his family in comfort, and to meet the requirements of good living in the social class to which he belongs; while the certainty of a pension [not only for himself but for his wife and children as well] in case of misfortune or death after a few years of service, relieves him from anxiety for the future." His social position is the equal of that of a judge or a clergyman, and he is promised

a long life of respected dignity and usefulness in his community.

As to the requirements for eligibility in France, what I have to say is mainly to emphasize the fact that the authorities there succeed pretty well in getting well-trained teachers by depending wholly on the examination system. No very definite qualification seems to be demanded for admission to the examination. So far as I remember, no specific number of years in the university nor any written discussion are required. The Department of Education finds the need of a certain number of teachers for the secondary schools. An examining commission is constituted and the aspirants are notified. Again the examination is conducted under the inspiration of university teachers, but with enough school men to insure a complete judgment. Since only a small number of those who present themselves to the commission can be selected, the examination is made competitive. Therefore, the standard is set by the candidates themselves, or rather by the best trained among them. These last are likely to come from the Higher Normal School of Paris, which is a specialized training school for teachers, admission to which is on competitive examination, and in which the students are completely supported by the state and given every possible opportunity of congenial companionship with others pursuing the same ends and freedom from cares to prepare them perfectly for their work. Yet these students spend from five years upward in getting ready for the Aggregation, as the examination is called. It should be remembered that we have in mind here the examination for the better class of high schools.

In New York there is now some agitation about the "merging of lists." That is, a number of persons who have low marks in older eligibility lists think they should be appointed before those having high marks on more recent ones. In France they have no such trouble. They conduct an examination, select the best so far as they are needed, and then burn the lists. Those who fall below can become honest carpenters or wait another year and try the examination again—they may take positions in inferior schools.

One of the principal stumbling-blocks in the way of the proper preparation of teachers in this country is the time it takes to get adequate training. There are short-cuts to most other professions, therefore the easy road to this one has to be kept open, some say. In reference to the requirements in California, therefore, I say at once that it is a four-year high school course, followed by a four-year college course and a year of graduate work—the last to be taken preferably in one of the Associated American Universities. The time requirement then is equal to the minimum German requirement—17 years, including all grades of preparation. The difference that first presents itself is that the Germans in almost all cases spend more than the minimum and at better schools than we have. There are other ways of becoming a high school teacher in California, but this is the normal way, and is producing excellent results.

So far as I am aware this requirement of the B. A. plus a year of graduate work is supported by the weight of opinion in this country, and is generally regarded as sufficient provided the time is well spent. One great argument for such a system is that the candidate is practically on trial during the entire year of his graduate work, since he has definitely signified his intention of becoming a secondary school man. The university has an excellent opportunity to judge of his character, ability, training and attainments. If I might add a word of exhortation in conclusion, I should plead for a requirement of evidence that the candidate has had an opportunity to prepare himself for his work, and then that his preparation be tested by persons who know the subject with which they deal and who have demonstrated their interest in the welfare of the schools.

Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, Ph.D., EDITOR

(Conducted with the cooperation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr., University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address: Box 999, Stanford University, Cal.).

The power of finance in modern history is well brought out in "The Significance of the Persian Question," by Roland G. Usher, in the "Atlantic Monthly" for March. However desirous the constituent states may be to form an alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Balkan States and Turkey, extending from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf, "Until the domination of England, France and America in the financial world can be decisively offset by German capital, little of the great scheme can be executed."

"New Splendors of Old Rome" is the attractive title with which Professor Dante Vaglieri heads an illustrated article upon the recent excavations at Ostia, in the March issue of the "Cosmopolitan." He tells us that in 1803 Pope Pius VII undertook excavations and succeeded in unearthing various treasures of this famous old seaport. Again, in 1870, Professor Lanciani undertook the work, with interesting results. Twenty years then elapsed with no further attempts until the writer began the present series of excavations which promise so much. He prophesies that Ostia, owing to her advantageous location by the sea, will become a great, flourishing, industrial city.

The new history teachers' magazine in Germany, "Vergangenheit und Gegenwart" (Teubner, Berlin), is showing a high grade of excellence, and we doubt not will secure a wide circle of American readers. The first number for 1912 contains an excellent article by the editor, Dr. Fritz Friedrich on the relations of historical science and history teaching, in which are some sensible comments on the use of sources in school instruction. He also makes an earnest plea for more interest in school problems on the part of scholars and investigators. The same number contains a brief discussion by Rudolf von Scala on the treatment of Greek and Roman history in secondary schools. He urges a more comprehensive view of ancient history, and especially emphasizes the need of more attention to the much-neglected Alexandrian period and the Hellenistic influence. Issue number two for 1912 contains a useful annotated list of recent German publications on the teaching of civics (Staatsbuergerliche Erziehung). The problem is as much a live one in the old world as in the new.

In the "American Journal of Sociology" for January, Professor Alfred H. Lloyd, of Michigan, takes up "The Case of Purpose against Fate in History." If history and civilization had lacked great men, its prophets and its martyrs, the case of purpose against fate would have little or nothing to rest upon. . . . Greatness has ever translated seeming fate into human purpose . . . ; and what greatness has done at special moments or periods and with notable achievement all individuals are forever hammering at."

Two important addresses should be noted in this column. The one is that of the editor of the "Fortnightly Review," W. L. Courtney, appearing in that periodical in March. It is upon "Sappho and Aspasia" and presents them very strikingly as women of great intellect seeking to give the fullest expression to their gifts. Living at different times and under different conditions, in some respects they afford a marked contrast in their careers.

The other address, of quite a different sort, is that of the veteran jurist, Simeon E. Baldwin, upon "The Progressive Unfolding of the Powers of the United States." This was presented at the eighth annual meeting of the American Political Science Association, and appears in the "American Political Science Review" for February.

The "Edinburgh Review" for January has three articles of varying importance according to the interest of the reader, namely, "Russo-Chinese Relations" (A.D. 1224-1912), "Chatham and the Country Life of His Day," and "Pitt." These are based upon recent publications.

The "Catholic World" for March contains an opening account of St. Clare of Assisi, by Father Cuthbert. "These articles on St. Clare are written in view of the seventh centenary of St. Clare's 'conversion' to the religious life, from which originated the Second Franciscan Order of the Poor Clares. The saint left her home and took her vows on the night of the 18-19 March, 1212."

History in the Summer Schools

Courses to be Given in the Subject During the Summer, 1912

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Chicago, Ill., June 17 to August 30.

HISTORY.

1. European History; Medieval Period, 376-1300. Dr. Jernegan.
2. European History; Later Medieval and Early Modern Period, 1260-1715. Prof. Walker.
- 4C. History of Egypt, Babylonia, and Early Orient.—A brief course covering the field to the second period of the Egyptian Empire. Prof. Breasted.
- 4D. History of Egypt, Babylonia, and the Early Orient.—A brief course covering the field from the second Egyptian Empire to the fall of Persia. Prof. Breasted.
5. History of Greece to Death of Alexander.—Outline study of the development of the political and social life of the Greek people. Mr. Huth.
6. History of Rome to the Death of Constantine.—Outline study of the development of the political and social life of the Romans. Mr. Huth.
- 9A. Industrial and Social History of Europe.—From the Roman Empire to the Reformation. Prof. Thompson.
12. The French Revolution.—The decay of the French Monarchy; Louis XVI; attempts at reform; the calling of the States General; the Republic; Napoleon Bonaparte. Prof. Thompson.
17. Constitutional and Political History of England.—From the reign of Edward I to the Stuart Restoration. Dr. Read.
30. History of the United States; Division and Reunion, 1829-1884. Prof. Shepardson.
43. The Church and the Roman Empire.—A study of the introduction of Christianity into the Roman Empire; the establishment of the papacy; the spread of Christianity; influence of the church upon social, industrial, and political life of the Empire. Prof. Walker.
67. Social, Industrial, and Religious History of England.—The Tudor and Stuart Periods. Dr. Read.
- 81C. American Social and Industrial History, 1750-1820.—The industrial, social, and religious conditions of the eighteenth century; the westward movement; the early West. Dr. Jernegan.
- 83A. Constitutional History of the United States, 1789-1829. Prof. McLaughlin.
98. The South from 1833-1861.—Growth of slavery; annexation of Texas; the Mexican War; social and industrial conditions; secession; outbreak of war. Prof. Dodd.
100. Teachers' Course in American History, 1760-1860.—An examination of the materials for studying and teaching American History. Investigation of special topics. Prof. Shepardson.
114. South Carolina and the War with Mexico. Seminar. Prof. Dodd.
- 117C. Problems in American Constitutional History. Seminar. Prof. McLaughlin.

DEPARTMENT OF CHURCH HISTORY.

2. The Reformation. Prof. Moncrief.
36. The Religious History of England in the Eighteenth Century. Prof. Moncrief.
- 25A. The History of the Conflict between Science and Religion. Dr. Gates.
- Life and Letters at Athens from Pericles to Demosthenes. Prof. Shorey.

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

Denver, Col., June 24 to August 3, 1912.

1. Europe in the Middle Ages, A.D. 376-1300. Prof. Willard.
2. American Diplomatic History, 1789-1900. Prof. Willard.
3. English Medieval Economic and Social History. Prof. Willard.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

Ithaca, N. Y., July 6 to August 16, 1912.

- A. American Social History. The expansion of the United States across the Allegheny Mountains, 1750-1848. Prof. Julian P. Bretz.
- B. American Politics and Government. Prof. Bretz.

C. Growth of the British Empire. Prof. George M. Dutcher, of Wesleyan University.

D. The Napoleonic Era. Prof. Dutcher.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

Hanover, N. H., July 1 to August 14, 1912.

- S9. History of Europe since 1815. Dr. H. B. Lawrence.
- S7. History of the United States since 1865. Dr. H. B. Lawrence.
- S4. Economic History of the United States. Dr. T. H. Boggs.
- S1. Roman Archaeology. Prof. Burton.

DRAKE UNIVERSITY.

Des Moines, Iowa, June 17, 1912.

9. History of the West. Prof. O. B. Clark.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Cambridge, Mass., July 2 to August 13, 1912.

HISTORY.

- S2. Ancient History for Teachers. Prof. William S. Ferguson.
- S1. History of England from 1689 to the present time. Prof. Ephraim D. Adams, of Leland Stanford, Jr., University.
- S5. American History from 1830 to the present time. Prof. Adams.
- S20i. Research in Greek and Roman History. Prof. William S. Ferguson.
- S20e. Research in American History. Prof. E. D. Adams.

GOVERNMENT.

- S1. Civil Government; the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Switzerland, with special reference to current problems. Dr. Arthur N. Holcombe.
- S2. Municipal Government; the government of American and European cities. Dr. A. N. Holcombe.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

Urbana, Ill., June 17 to August 9, 1912.

HISTORY.

- S1a. Medieval European History to 1300. Prof. Ford.
- S3b. American History, 1783-1860. Prof. McCormac, of University of California.
- S13. The Rise of the American Republic; history of the colonies in the 18th century. Prof. McCormac.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.

- S1. American National Government. Prof. Geiser, of Oberlin College.
- S2. Modern European Governments. Prof. Geiser.

UNIVERSITY OF INDIANA.

Bloomington, Ind., June 20 to August 30, 1912.

FIRST HALF-TERM.

1. Medieval and Modern History, 1517-1789. Mr. McDonald.
- 2a. History of Greece to 421 A.D. Prof. Hershey.
6. History of England to 1215. Mr. McDonald.
10. Modern History: The 19th century from 1814. Prof. Hershey.
5. American Political History, 1781-1850. Prof. Ogg, of Simmons College.
21. American Politics: The American Government. Prof. Ogg.
- 20a. Seminary in American History. Prof. Ogg.
- 20d. Current Politics. Prof. Hershey.
13. Medieval Institutions. Mr. McDonald.

SECOND HALF-TERM.

1. Medieval and Modern History, 1789 to 1900. Prof. Ogg.
 21. American Politics: The Party System. Prof. Ogg.
 - 20a. Seminary in American History. Prof. Ogg.
- Courses in the Teaching of History and Geography will be given in the School of Education by Mr. Ramsey.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Baltimore, Md., July 2 to August 13, 1912.

- 1a. American History to 1865. Prof. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University.
- 1b. Methods of Teaching History. Prof. Sioussat.
2. English History, 1485 to 1603. Prof. Sioussat.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS.

Lawrence, Kans., June 6 to August 7, 1912.

1. Medieval History II. From the Crusades to the beginning of the 16th century. Prof. Hardy, of Ottawa University.
2. History of Modern England, 1603-1912. Prof. Crawford.
3. The Foundations of English Institutions. Prof. Crawford.
4. The French Revolution. Prof. Hardy.
5. History of Political Parties in the United States. Prof. Dykstra.
6. American Political Theories. Prof. Dykstra.
7. Europe in the 19th Century. Prof. Hardy.

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.

Baton Rouge, La., June 3 to August 2, 1912.

2. The Middle Ages and Modern Times. Prof. Fleming.
6. History of the United States, 1820-1865. Prof. Fleming.
8. History of the United States since 1865. Prof. Fleming.

UNIVERSITY OF MAINE.

Orono, Me., June 26 to August 6, 1912.

- Courses given by Prof. Colvin and Miss Cousins:
- 1a. American History and Government.
 - 1b. English History.
 2. United States History, from the Mexican War.
 3. Modern European History, 1715-1912.
 4. Graduate course.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Ann Arbor, Mich., July 1 to August 23, 1912.

1. History of Greece. Dr. Marsh.
2. History of Rome to the Founding of the Roman Empire. Dr. Marsh.
3. General History of England from Norman Conquest to Accession of Henry VII. Prof. Cross.
4. The French Revolution. Prof. Becker, of University of Kansas.
5. Seminary in Historical Method. Prof. Becker.
6. American History, 1763-1800. Prof. Latané, of Washington and Lee University.
7. History of the United States in the Civil War and Reconstruction. Prof. Latané.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

Minneapolis, Minn.

1. Medieval History. Prof. Munro, of University of Wisconsin.
2. Medieval Civilization. Prof. Munro.
3. The Crusades. Prof. Munro.
4. Foundations of England, 449 to 1399. Dr. White.
5. England from 1399 to 1688. Dr. White.
6. The Renaissance and Reformation. Dr. White.
7. American History, 1760 to 1830. Dr. Robinson, of Leland Stanford, Jr., University.
8. The History of the West. Dr. Robinson.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.

1. Elements of American Government. Mr. A. J. Lien, of University of Colorado.
2. Municipal Administration. Mr. Lien.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

Columbia, Mo., June 14 to August 16, 1912.

- 1a. Modern History, from fall of Rome to Renaissance. Mr. Perkins.
- S 2. English History and Government. Mr. Trenholme.
- 3a. American History. Mr. Viles.
- 5b. Ancient History. Mr. Perkins.
- S 100. Later Roman Empire and Germanic Nations. Mr. Trenholme.
110. Advanced United States History. Mr. Viles.
- S 230. Missouri History. Mr. Viles.

- S 240. Recent and Contemporary European History. Mr. Perkins.
- S 250. Seminary in Historical Research and Thesis Work.

EDUCATION.

137. The Teaching of History. Mr. Trenholme.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA.

Lincoln, Neb., June 14 to August 9, 1912.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

2. Revolutionary Period, 1763-1783. Mr. Kendrick.
4. Later Constitutional Period, 1832-1861. Prof. Persinger.
6. Recent American History, 1877-1912. Prof. Persinger.

EUROPEAN HISTORY.

1. Teachers' Course in Greek History. Prof. Fling.
2. The French Revolution. Prof. Fling.

POLITICAL SCIENCE.

1. American Government. Prof. Aylsworth.
11. English Government and Politics. Prof. Aylsworth.
31. Party Government in the United States. Prof. Aylsworth.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

New York City, July 1 to August 9, 1912.

- S 1. Political and Constitutional History of the United States. Prof. Brown.
- S 2. American Civil Government. Prof. Brown.
- S 3. Seminar in American History. Prof. Brown.
- S 4. Medieval History. Dr. Jones.
- S 5. Roman History. Dr. Jones.
- S 6. The Napoleonic Era. Dr. Jones.

OBERLIN COLLEGE.

Oberlin, Ohio, June 21 to August 9, 1912.

- S 1. Greek History: Athens to the Time of Pericles. Prof. Martin.
 - S 2. Roman History: The Fall of the Republic. Prof. Cole.
 - S 3. English History: 1702-1700. Prof. Hall.
 - S 4. American History: 1885-1907. Prof. Hall.
 - S 5. European History: Period of Renaissance and Reformation. Prof. Lybyer.
 - S 6. European History: Europe Since 1648. Prof. Lybyer.
- Graduate work in History if desired.

OHIO UNIVERSITY.

Athens, Ohio, June 17 to July 26, 1912.

- United States History, Review. Prof. Thomas N. Hoover.
- Collegiate United States History. Prof. T. N. Hoover.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

Columbus, Ohio, June 17 to August 9, 1912.

101. Political History of the United States to 1800. Prof. Clarence E. Carter, Miami University.
107. Constitutional History of the United States to 1800. Prof. C. E. Carter.
116. History of the West since the War of 1812-15. Prof. C. E. Carter.
102. Modern History, 1500 A.D. to the present. Prof. Edgar H. McNeal.
105. History of Greece. Prof. E. H. McNeal.
202. Medieval Civilization. Prof. E. H. McNeal.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.

State College, Pa., June 24 to August 2, 1912.

- EdI. Methods in Teaching covering History in the Elementary School. Miss Katherine Moran.
- A. History of England from 1689 to the Present. Prof. D. C. Knowlton.
- C. Civil Government in the United States. Prof. P. O. Ray.
- D. History of Pennsylvania. Prof. Ray.
- E. Economic History of the United States. Prof. Ray.
- F. Teachers' Course. Prof. D. C. Knowlton.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

Austin, Tex., June 15 to August 1, 1912.

- 2f. The Early Middle Ages, 395-814. Dr. Duncalf.
- 2w. The Feudal Age, 814-1300. Dr. Duncalf.

- 4w. National England, 1297-1688. Prof. Manning.
 5f. European Expansion in America, 1492-1783. Prof. Manning.
 5w. National Development and Expansion, 1783-1850. Dr. Ramsdell.
 5s. Division and Reunion, 1850-1911. Dr. Ramsdell.
 W. A. The Annexation of Texas. Prof. Barker.
 Courses in History and Civics are also given at the Summer Normal School, conducted at the University.

TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

New Orleans, La., June 13 to August 14, 1912.

- Outline Course in Ancient History. Miss E. Riggs.
 Medieval and Modern Europe. Prof. White.
 American History, including Methods. Miss E. Riggs.
 The Nineteenth Century. Miss E. Riggs.
 The American Colonies, 1492-1763. Prof. White.
 American Government and Politics. Prof. White.
 ment based (1) upon geographical representation, (2) on universal Proclamation of Neutrality to the building of the Panama Canal

URSINUS COLLEGE.

Collegeville, Pa., Summer Session, 1912.

- Aa. Ancient History. A study of the Oriental nations, Greece, Rome, and the Romano-Teutonic world to the death of Charles the Great. Mr. S. S. Lanchs, A.M.
 Ab. History of England. An introductory course in the political and social development of the English people. Mr. Lanchs.
 Ac. American History. A preliminary course in the essential facts of American History. Mr. Lanchs.

UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT.

Burlington, Vt., July 1 to August 9, 1912.

1. An Outline Course in the Development of Modern Europe.
 2. An Outline Course in the History of the 19th Century, beginning with the French Revolution. President Samuel C. Mitchell, University of South Carolina.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

University, Va., Summer Session, 1912.

1. Ancient History. Prof. Hart.
 2. Medieval and Modern History. Prof. McConnell.
 3. English History. Prof. McConnell.
 4. History of the United States. Prof. Page.
 5. Civil Government in the United States. Prof. Page.
 6. Virginia History. Prof. McConnell.
 7. Review of United States History. Mr. Micou.

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.

Seattle, Wash., June 24 to August 2, 1912.

1. History of the United States, 1850-1875. Prof. Conger.
 2. Sectionalism in the United States. Prof. Conger.
 3. Europe since 1648. Professor Morris.
 4. The Making of the English Constitution. Prof. Morris.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

1. Ancient History. Prof. Scholz, of University of California.
 2. Medieval History, 1095-1500. Prof. Sellery.
 3. The United States since 1829. Prof. Hockett, of Ohio State University.
 104. Ancient Imperialism from Alexander the Great to Constantine. Prof. Scholz.
 105. The Protestant Revolt. Prof. Sellery.
 106. The American Colonies, 1600-1763. Prof. Hockett.
 107. The French Revolution and Napoleon. Prof. Lingelbach, of the University of Pennsylvania.
 108. History of the West, 1763-1837. Prof. Paxson.
 109. Nineteenth Century Europe. Prof. Lingelbach.
 110. The Teaching of History. Prof. Chase.
 211. Seminary in American History. Prof. Paxson.

History in the Secondary School

Reviewing for Examinations

BY ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, Ph.D., DEWITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

[The familiar type of review lesson, which is nothing but a review of the same mass of detail in larger blocks, studied more hastily and superficially than at first, is utterly worthless, if not actually harmful. Not only is the method ineffective, but the aim is unworthy. It is not intimate familiarity with detail that we want as a result of history study in the high school; the passing of a few years will leave a small residuum in this respect at the best. The result worth while, so far as mastery of material is concerned, is a clear conception of the course of development in the field studied, an understanding of the relation of events, the play of different influences, perspective. Of course, these results cannot be reached on a basis of slipshod and careless preparation of the daily work, but it should be clearly recognized that the details themselves are valuable only when interpreted with reference to large units, to tendencies and lines of progress.]

It follows, therefore, that the teacher who stops with a drill, however careful, upon the facts as he passes from period to period and topic to topic, has done less than half his work. There should be a distinctly different teaching exercise, both in outside preparation and in class-room procedure, in which this more valuable purpose may be realized. This is the true place and function of the review exercise. And incidentally it may be pointed out that the mastery of detail will be far more thorough and lasting in this way than in the other; just as it is much easier to remember the steps in the demonstration of a theorem in geometry through which the student has reasoned his way, than to recall a chaotic jumble of unrelated details in a specified order.

In the following article Dr. Wolfson has clearly explained the way in which the really valuable review may be conducted. As

he himself points out, the method need not be applied to the particular topics he has suggested. Every teacher will have his own views of the best organization of his field and of the topics for review which will most effectively interpret it; in fact, the same teacher, if he is thoughtful and grows in his work, will make changes each year. The essential matter is to understand the true function of the review, and then conduct it with the best insight and scholarship that one has—or can obtain.—J. M. G.]

REVIEWING FOR EXAMINATIONS.

The Purpose of the Examination.

Practically all history teachers are forced to pause, at least once a year, many of them twice a year, while their students submit themselves to the test of an examination. Many teachers decry these examinations as a useless waste of time; personally, I regard them as among the most valuable exercises of the year's work. An examination paper, wisely constructed, gives the student a chance to test himself as no other exercise can. Such a paper should attempt to do two things—first, to test the candidate upon his knowledge of the vital facts of the year's work, and second, to force him to show his power of interpreting these facts and of placing them in their proper relation. The questions should be properly distributed both as to time and as to content—there should be some questions on the geographical background of history, some on the development of political institutions, some on economic and social conditions. On the other hand, the teacher has a right to complain if the paper contains a single question based on trivial incidents, if it asks for judgments or comparisons

too difficult for students of the average age and mentality of his class, or if it allows too little choice as to questions.

With an examination such as this before them the students should work with enthusiasm and with confidence in preparation for the test. The teacher who understands his work can make his classes see that the test approximates the work that every adult scholar has to perform at the end of any investigation. The information has all been gathered—note books are full—now comes the task of arrangement and selection preliminary to composition.

The Review Method.

As to the method of conducting this work of preparation, long experience has proved that the way in which the average teacher does the work is comparatively ineffective. Throughout the term he has been assigning lessons which require the student to read five or ten pages of the text-book. Now he reviews by assigning forty or fifty pages. The ordinary review is nothing more than an attempt to teach the subject anew in fifteen or twenty lessons. The student is bewildered by the wealth of detail; his mind is soon overcrowded; he is allowed to exercise no discretion as to the facts that he will emphasize, and he ends by doing one of two things: either he gives up the task entirely, or he purchases a cram manual and attempts to memorize its entire contents. Who of us has not seen students with a text-book or a cram manual open in the examination room up to the last moment, feverishly turning the leaves in the hope of adding one more fact to the jumble which already exists in their minds. In consequence, most intelligent teachers are eager to abandon this method for one more effective. May I offer this as an alternative: *review exercises to be valuable should be topical and not chronological.*

The Topical Method.

In the history of every nation certain influences, racial and geographical, are constantly at work; certain tendencies, political, social and economic, are easily discernable. These tendencies have a beginning somewhere, grow stronger and stronger, reach a climax and finally disappear or leave an indelible impression on the life of the nation. It is the function of the teacher to note these influences and tendencies, to keep them in mind so that he may emphasize them properly when the review period arrives.

In his first survey of the field the student will be ignorant of these tendencies. He will gather his facts unconscious of their final significance and without the review he may never come to see them in their proper relation. If, however, he is allowed to review the subject he, too, ought to become fully conscious of them, ought to hunt them out for himself and trace them from their origin to their final manifestation. Thus, in the review the teacher will have created a new motive, a new center of interest, the facts will be studied a second time, and the preparation for the examination will be accomplished.

The Cumulative Method.

May I allow myself one more dictum before I proceed to concrete illustration. The teacher who waits till the end of the term before beginning his review has adopted a faulty method. Reviews to be effective should be constant throughout the term—not formal, indiscriminate, chronological reviews—but cumulative reviews which occur every time a racial or geographic influence, a political, social or economic tendency leads the nation further along in its destiny. If this policy is adopted, the teacher need not worry if every fact in each day's assignment is not fully mastered. He may rest content in the consciousness that those facts will be reviewed and their hold on the students' minds strengthened later when the subject comes up again for consideration.

Geographic influences in English History.

With these generalizations before us, let us apply the method to at least two fields of history.

In the history of Great Britain, the great basic geographical influences are (1) that the British Isles are far enough removed from the continent to be free from constant continental influences, but near enough to be in touch with great continental movements; (2) that certain parts of the islands are adopted to agriculture and other parts to manufacturing only; (3) that the islands are comparatively small and the coasts favorable to sea-faring, that consequently when the means of ocean navigation have been perfected the people of the islands will be led into the race for colonization and foreign trade. To make these generalizations at the begin-

ning of the term is worse than useless, though many of our text-books do it. Such generalizations are the result of the teacher's complete knowledge, not of the apperceptive mass of the child. On the other hand, they serve wonderfully well both during the term and especially at the end of the term as the basis for review of much of the economic history of England.

Racial Elements.

The mixture of races in the people of Great Britain is too well known to need analysis here, yet how many teachers ever use this fact to explain and unify the history of the nation? Is not the one fact that England is peopled largely by a mixed Germanic race, that Wales, Scotland, and Ireland are peopled largely by Celts, sufficient to serve as a basis for the explanation in review of nearly all the antagonism which has always existed between these various parts of the kingdom? Is not the fact that England is the conquering, trading nation sufficient to illuminate the whole complicated story of her relations with Ireland?

Socially, Great Britain has passed through four epochs. (1) Its history begins with a tribal period which includes all her history down to later Anglo-Saxon times. (The Roman occupation, though it lasted three centuries, is really only an episode in English history.) (2) The Feudal age followed and came to an end with the War of the Roses. (3) From the end of the fifteenth century to the end of the eighteenth, British social life was dominated by the landed aristocracy. (4) In the latter part of the eighteenth century, and especially in the nineteenth century, the middle class manufacturer and merchant finally came into his own; and, (5) finally, we are now on the verge of an age when the proletariat will probably dominate British society. The roots of each of these periods can be traced backward, the remains of many of them persist to this day—what an excellent chance for a wide-awake teacher to use them as a basis for the final survey of the whole period of English history!

Other Topics in English History.

In the same way we can use present-day problems in British politics—(1) church disestablishment, (2) colonial federation, (3) woman's suffrage, (4) the recent limitation of the power of the House of Lords, (5) Irish Home Rule, etc., as a basis for reviews and lo! the necessity for a special review for examination disappears almost entirely.

Geographic influences in American History.

The scheme outlined above for English history will work equally well in American history. Personally, I have always begun my review by a study of geographic influences. (1) The American continent lies between Europe and Asia. It turns its face to the one and its back on the other. These two facts help us to understand the history of discovery, of exploration, and of colonization. (2) The mountain chains and the river systems explain much of the history of economic development; they give us the key to the Indian trails, the wagon roads, the canals, and the railroads of the continent. (3) The climatic conditions, north and south, and the mineral resources furnish the other factor in the equation of economic development. With these three things in mind, the teacher can review the whole history of Spanish, French, Dutch, and English exploration and settlement. He can follow the struggle between these four nations for supremacy on the continent. He can trace the development of the territory west of the Alleghenies; he can review the story of the slavery controversy; he can discuss modern American economic development.

Racial Elements.

The basic racial element in the United States is Anglo-Saxon, but an Anglo-Saxon race considerably modified (1) by geographic separation from the parent stock and (2) by large admixtures from many other races. These propositions will serve as topics under which one can resurvey the history of the American Revolution, the development of new social ideals in the United States and the story of the growth in numbers of the American nation.

Present Political and Economic Conditions.

Politically, the United States is a union of States, with a government based (1) upon geographical representation, (2) on universal manhood suffrage, and (3) on an absence of all religious restraints upon the individual. In this statement we have a generalization which will lead us back to a study of colonial governments, of the

(Continued on page 115.)

Metternich and the Revolutions of 1820 and 1830

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON Ph. D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Preliminary Considerations.

As a rule textbook writers and teachers consider the revolutions of 1820 and 1830 in connection with such topics as the attainment of German unity or the expulsion of the Turk from Europe, instead of presenting them as European movements. It must be admitted that the period which opens with 1815 is much more complicated than that which precedes this date and that it is a much more difficult problem to preserve anything like unity and continuity amid the hopelessly involved events which mark the history of Europe from this time forward. Some semblance of order, however, may be realized from the seeming chaos without entailing as much sacrifice as too often accompanies the presentation of this portion of European history. While applying rigidly the principle of a careful selection of material, more time and attention should be given to the epoch between 1815 and the outbreak of the Revolution of 1848 if the instructor would present a well-rounded picture of European progress. Although the movements of 1820 and 1830 may serve as an introduction to the various efforts to unite Germany under the Hohenzollern or to consolidate Italy under the House of Savoy or to dislodge the Turk from Europe, they possess a wider significance as stages in the development of Europe as a whole, which are worthy of emphasis even in our secondary teaching. It must be admitted at the outset that it is easier to ignore these revolutions and the circumstances which gave them birth than to treat them in these broader aspects. The great danger in presenting phases of development which are so closely connected with contemporary politics is that Europe shall no longer be visualized as one great unit with clearly marked characteristics, but that it shall call up a loose aggregation of States with sharply-defined lines of cleavage and with few common bonds of union; in short that European history shall resolve itself into so much German, French, or Italian history. It must be conceded that the development of many of the states of Europe becomes more individualistic or nationalistic in character with the lapse of time, but this is not so true of the interval before 1848 as has been the case since. In fact, many writers recognize in the seven years that followed the Congress of Vienna a period marked by a unity which was characteristic of few epochs in the history of modern Europe. "For once," says Phillips, "it is actually possible to treat the history of Europe as a single unit." These years marked a persistent effort to complete the work begun at Vienna, building up as Gentz expressed it "a better social structure."

Arrangement of Material.

The material for the entire period should be arranged with some such thought in view, following, perhaps, the plan of treatment in Mueller, "Political History of Recent Times," or in Seignobos, "Europe Since 1815" (Chapter XXV). In this way the student will secure a much better idea of European tendencies than would be the case if his attention were focused immediately on one of the three topics with which it has long been the custom to close our chapters of European history; namely, the unification of Italy and Germany and the Eastern Question. Mueller recognizes the epoch which opens with 1815 and closes with 1830 as a struggle for constitutional government on the lines laid down by the French Revolution with the French constitution of 1791 as the shibboleth before the eyes of all Liberals, interrupted by a more or less persistent series of efforts to check these movements by a combination of the Great Powers of Europe who meet from time to time for this purpose, restoring such arrangements as had been overthrown, or bolstering up thrones and traditions which were tottering to their fall. To this might be added the thought which underlies Phillips's presentation of European history from 1815 to 1822; namely, the attempt to realize the ideal which Napoleon in the closing years of his life at St. Helena affirmed had been constantly before his eyes; namely, that of a great European Confederation on the order of the Amphictyonic Council. The second epoch opens with the July Revolution in France which gave rise to similar movements in Belgium, Poland, Germany, and Italy, even making itself felt in liberal England. The closing scenes of this movement were but the prelude to the great upheaval of 1848 which shook all central and Southern Europe to their foundations and paved the way for the

mighty changes of the latter half of the nineteenth century. These movements of 1820 and 1830 center about a personality, or to speak more properly, about two personalities, Prince Metternich and the Tsar Alexander I. The former, however, becomes the dominating factor in European politics by bringing his influence more and more to bear upon the susceptible Tsar.

Plan of Presentation in Classroom.

The following plan is suggested for classroom presentation. The instructor naturally begins by pointing out on the map the essential changes effected by the Congress of Vienna, noting their significance and insisting that these shall be visualized even to the point of the student's reproducing them upon an outline map if required. This suggests the question as to whether the period from 1815 to 1848 was in its essence one of territorial changes, that is of wars and epoch-making boundary treaties. The answers to this will serve to impress the fact that we are on the threshold of a long period of "external peace," marred, however, by internal revolutions. For the next forty years, even down to 1854, there was to be no change in the Europe of 1815, "but the creation of the two little kingdoms of Greece and Belgium and the destruction of the republic of Cracow." (Seignobos, p. 787.)

Three words can then be drawn from the class as expressive of the character of the period, the three R's—Reaction, Repression, and Revolution. The two first mentioned may be illustrated at this point by citing specific instances of the attitude of the rulers of some of the Italian or German States to the work of the French Revolution and Napoleon. The transition is natural to the paramount influence of the so-called great powers of Europe and the redominance among these of the Austrian statesman Prince Metternich. It may require rather careful questioning to make clear the nature of the Holy Alliance and the tremendous influence of a man of such limited attainments over such powerful states as Russia, Prussia, France, and England. This may be done by laying stress upon the universal desire for peace and the seizure by Metternich of every opportunity afforded by circumstances to convince the Prussian King and the Russian Tsar of their identity of interests with those of the Austrian Emperor Francis II.

The first series of uprisings and demonstrations resulting from the smouldering embers left by the French Revolution and the discontent with the work performed at Vienna may be made the occasion for a consideration of the doctrine of intervention, its application in specific cases, and its final defeat at the hands of England acting with the United States in the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine (see Phillips's "Modern Europe," p. 15 for England's part). The names, the dates, and the circumstances which occasioned these congresses and the work which was performed at each should be duly emphasized. The doctrine of intervention may perhaps be made clearer by illustrations drawn from contemporary history in connection with developments in Mexico at the time of the overthrow of Diaz or by our policy in Cuba just before and after the Spanish-American War. The struggle for Greek independence may be considered as a corollary to the ultimate failure of Metternich to carry out his ideas in his inability to extend the provisions of the treaties made at Vienna into the domain of the Turk, or even to secure harmonious action from the quondam allies of the days of the Wars of Liberation. This struggle may be deferred for consideration later in connection with the Eastern Questions.

After pointing out the conditions which gave rise to the July Revolution in France, the significance of the entire period which it inaugurated and its bearing upon the future may be emphasized by pointing out the various evidences of that dawning feeling of nationality with which the diplomatists of Europe were so soon to reckon. Europe exhibited many hopeful signs of a spirit of hostility during these reactionary years when such consistent and persistent efforts were put forth to "turn back the hands of time to the historic hour at which they stood when the Bastille fell."

This portion of the history from 1815 to 1830 may be reviewed and summarized and made more definite by placing before the class

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REMOVABLE NOTICE

The entire business of the McKinley Publishing Company has been removed from its Germantown location to 1619-1621 Ranstead Street, to which address all correspondence should be sent.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—No excuse is needed for printing in this issue the five valuable papers recently presented before the New England History Teachers' Association. It must be stated, however, that the printing of these papers has made it impossible to give the usual amount of space to several of the regular departments. The regular topics not treated this month will receive additional space in the June issue.

Mr. Howard C. Hill, formerly of Oak Park High School, is now instructor in the State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

The new and enlarged catalog of Historical Material of the N. E. Association will be published for the association by the Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston, to whom orders should be addressed. The price will be fifty cents, except to those whose orders have already been entered at twenty-five cents.

Reports from Historical Field

W. H. CUSHING, Editor.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

The annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of Maryland will be held at Goucher College, Baltimore, on Saturday, May 4, 1912, at 11 a.m. The program includes papers on the character and amount of work in history to be expected from students in the elementary school and in the secondary school.

As we go to press there comes to hand the announcement of the fifth annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, which will be held at Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., on May 23, 24, 25, 1912. The Teachers' Section of this Association will hold a joint session with the History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association. The program for the three-day session is an unusually interesting one, touching many phases of western and national history, as well as problems of history pedagogy.

NOTES.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard, of the High School of Practical Arts, Boston, has returned from a visit to schools in Philadelphia and New York.

Mr. A. R. Wheeler, of St. George's School, Newport, R. I., will spend next year abroad.

Dr. M. L. Bonham, Jr., of Simmons College, will teach in the summer school of Louisiana State University.

The next meeting of the Indiana Association will be held in Bloomington, May 23-25.

Lantern slides on Greek and Roman art are being loaned free of charge to high schools by the Fogg Museum of Art, Harvard University.

Prof. E. D. Adams, of Stanford University, will teach at Harvard this summer.

Dr. David S. Muzzey has been promoted to the grade of associate professor at Columbia.

The "Vassar Miscellany" for April, 1912, contains a report of the sixteenth annual meeting of the Vassar Alumnae Association. An interesting summary of Dr. Textor's lecture on "Russian Estates" is included.

The fifth annual report of the Council of English Historical Association, coming the year 1910-1911 was presented at the annual meeting January 11, 1912, and has been published for the Association by Alexander and Shephard, Fetter Lane.

COLORADO TEACHERS.

The annual meeting of the High School and College Conference was held at the University of Colorado on Saturday, March 30, 1912. This Conference is made up of the high school men and university professors.

The Committee on History, Civics and Economics, of which Professor J. F. Willard is chairman, brought in the following resolutions, which were passed:

"I. That American history and civics be made a prerequisite for graduation from the high schools of Colorado.

"II. That four years of history be offered in the Colorado high schools and that the course of study be so arranged that it may be possible for the students to take the full four years if they so elect.

"III. That none but trained history teachers be employed to teach history in the Colorado high schools, and that such requirement be taken into account in the accrediting of schools. ('Trained teacher' was interpreted by the Conference to mean one who had taken at least fifteen hours' work in history in a college or university.)

"IV. That the equipment of the department of history be placed upon a parity with that of other departments."

Professor Willard's committee worked hard to get these resolutions through, and have now made a start toward improving conditions. Therefore, they are trying to force a professional and fraternal feeling among the history teachers of Colorado. To this end a campaign of publicity has been inaugurated, and by frequent publications the committee hopes to bring about a great improvement in the history department of the Colorado high schools.

NOTES.

The ninth annual report of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has been published. It contains an account of the proceedings in connection with the ninth annual convention of the Association held in Washington, D. C., March 10 and 11, 1911. Among the papers are the following: "Social History and the Industrial Revolution," by Professor James T. Shotwell, Columbia University; "The Present Status of the Teaching of Economics in High Schools," by Professor E. S. Meade, of the University of Pennsylvania; "The Practical Management of a High School Course in Economics," by Professor John Tildsley, De Witt Clinton High School, New York City, and "Historical Washington," by Ellen Spencer Mussey, of Washington, D. C. The membership list shows a total of two hundred and twenty members of the organization.

(Continued from page 112.)

growth of the union, of the struggle between the defenders of the two theories as to the nature of the constitution, of the history of religious toleration, of the development of modern American democracy, of the history of political parties in the United States down to the present generation.

Economically, the United States is part agricultural, part industrial and commercial. Upon this fact of present-day life the student can reconstruct the history of the development of the west, the growth of trade and industry (inventions, business organization and labor conditions), financial history and the history of the tariff.

American Foreign Relations.

Finally, in her relations with other nations, (1) the United States early adopted a consistent policy of isolation, (2) insisted on freedom of international trade, and (3) declared that the American continents were closed to European colonization and to European political influences. (4) Since 1898, the United States has abandoned its policy of isolation. Again we are ready for a series of lessons in review which will include everything from Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality to the building of the Panaman Canal and the American interferences in China.

In conclusion, let me say that I do not mean to imply that the topics here given are the only ones which might be adopted. Indeed, I find in practice that I vary them from term to term. I am pleading for a method, not for its application to any particular set of topics.

(Continued from page 113.)

such statements as the following, drawn, possibly, as in this case, from the textbook:

"The Congress of Vienna was a victory for reaction and despotism over liberal thought and free government."

The two positive forces in politics, Democracy and Nationality were "ignored by the Congress of Vienna and warred upon by Metternich" (West, "Modern History," p. 391), and making these the basis for such questions as:

"Illustrate the truth of these statements by reference to one or more of the countries which figured prominently in the period, as for example, Germany, Spain, Italy, Greece, France, and Spanish America."

A ten-minute test may be set covering simply developments in one of these countries, or a more comprehensive survey may be required by calling for several illustrations. From time to time, such questions as the following may be used for short written summaries or tests:

"Define the doctrine of intervention and describe some of the efforts to enforce it."

"The Holy Alliance: Its Aims, and Its Accomplishments."

In addition to the books mentioned, Seignobos's "Contemporary Civilization" will be found to contain a very suggestive chapter on the struggle for constitutional government which marked the entire period (Chapter X). The new work by Hazen, on Europe since 1815, in the American Historical Series, is especially valuable for the secondary teacher. The narrative is clear, the material well arranged, and the maps excellent. This period is covered in Chapters I-VII.

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larly common—e.g., Africa, Australia, Russia, Brazil, these two devices for measurement should be supplemented by an inset of a relatively small geographical division like Illinois or England to serve as a graphic means of comparison. Placed at some convenient point on the main map where its inclusion will work no disadvantage to any needful details, the inset should mention the name of the specimen division selected, and should state specifically that it contains so and so many square miles in comparison with the larger area concerned. In this way it would give at a glance those notions of relativity in size which are often the beginnings of historical wisdom.

Turning from mechanical construction to subject matter, the problem of what historical maps should contain now presents itself for solution. From the political and military standpoint certain periods of European history are abundantly provided for in atlases, wall maps and text-book maps. The United States does not fare so well. Here practically all of the material available on a reasonably large scale consists of a lone wall map, semi-historical in character, and a collection or two of charts gaudily colored, insufficient in scope, inaccurate in drawing or statement, and mounted withal on iron stands of dubious stability. Nor is there such a thing in existence as an historical atlas of the United States.

These "beggarly elements of old" no longer suffice. Progressive history recognizes politics and war only for what they are actually worth in its scheme of evaluation. Moreover, it insists that the genius of history is not mnemonic but organic; that the past should be studied in the light of the present and not merely the present in the light of the past. As its themes history should choose the phases of the past in event and institution and thought which are permanently interesting and valuable, which "connect up" with the present, and should relegate the aridly conventional data of memory drills to the limbo of the archaic and outworn. To this end it must seek the explanation of present phenomena in manifestations of human activity that wot not of war and politics alone. It must look to all the sciences and arts for guidance and wise counsel, as these in turn must look to history as the judicial recorder of their development.

Though many of the customary maps of political development may be retained to advantage, efforts should be made to supply those needful to explain political conditions and relationships in accordance with the newer interpretations that history has put upon them. Contemporaneous maps, also, should be introduced and left no longer to political geography alone, as the term is commonly understood. In the strict sense every map that depicts the present situation is historical, for the present only emerges so as to lapse instantly into the past. If for no purpose other than that of comparison, the map that shows things more or less as they are has a measure of usefulness quite as great as the one that describes things as they were.

Maps that deal with wars should illustrate their causes and effects rather than the details of campaigns. Useful as the latter may be to professed students of military science, they have no rightful place in the general teaching of history. Particularly objectionable is the type of map appearing in many an atlas and text-book, the so-called "battle-plan," which aims to depict the positions of armies by means of blocks and dots and dashes ranged about wriggling lines and hirsute curves. Of what avail is it to have the pupil learn that the little blue or green rectangles got before, behind, on the side of, or all the way round, the little red or yellow rectangles, and hence won or lost the piebald combat? The military element in the past may not be omitted, of course, but when geography is summoned to explain it, the seats of only the most important campaigns and the

vicinity of only the most important battles are what should appear on the maps. Even these should be limited to the military events that have had the most decisive bearing upon the states of the world as they are constituted to-day. Above all, in maps no less than in the history that they illustrate, the victories of peace should be emphasized, and not the slaughtering of war or the deeds of military prowess that suggest it.

Instead of battle-plans and the vicinity of campaigns, there are other centres of activity capable of graphic representation and possessing a more permanent and useful interest. These are the cities and localities that have played an important role in history. Plans of Athens, Rome, Jerusalem, Constantinople, London and Paris, and maps showing the vicinity of each of them, plans of the Acropolis and the Forum, to mention only the most obvious instances, are of immeasurably greater value than all the battle-plans ever contrived.

While every map should be drawn on a physical basis, showing coast-line, streams, lakes and mountains to the extent that the scale may allow, this concession to geography is not enough for the purposes of history. Since man's performance is conditioned on nature's provisions, the physical map, pure and simple, is quite indispensable. The various physiographic areas, their diverse configuration, their resources, their rainfall, their climate, whatever, in short, their existence has done to obstruct or to promote the development of the human race must be traced as historical factors of the utmost significance. The relief map and the physical map do not lie within the exclusive province of the geographer. The historian must press them into his service, for they are literally the ground-work upon which he stands.

Progressive history, moreover, believes in territorial, as well as mental expansion. It calls attention to neglected fields at the same time that it urges more intensive cultivation of those in hand. Western Europe and the United States have long been the stock areas in which history has been made to labor. Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia, Oceania and the regions of America lying outside of the United States have been regarded as history's Cape Non, beyond which inquiry may not go and live. They are mere incidentals, presumably, in the life of the chief nations of Western Europe, and in that of their compeer on this side of the water. Besides, the time available for learning and instructing is too brief to warrant excursions away from well-trodden lands, particularly since these lands are now seen to offer many an attraction hitherto unobserved by history. Yet the discovery of the New World, the expansion of European civilization over the globe, and the reaction upon that civilization caused by contact with countries and peoples, with institutions and ideas, in every conceivable stage of development, are perhaps the most remarkable phenomena in the annals of the human race. These phenomena ought not to be slighted because certain events of distinctly minor value have been hallowed by repetition till they have become the fetiches of history. In courageous exercise of the right of selection and omission, which is the first duty of the student and teacher of history, such fetiches should be put out of the text-book and turned over to the encyclopedia or to other works of the sort. Their place may then be taken by the newer elements of history to which reference has been made. Among them is the study of the action and reaction visible in the spread of European culture over the world entire. For the successful pursuit of this study historical maps must be available. Their construction and use will aid most efficaciously in convincing the teacher and the taught that the progress of humanity, and not the inculcation of patriotism, should be held up as the great object lesson of the ages.

Many other phases of history there are which receive no adequate treatment in existing maps. For the sake of convenience they may be grouped under the general term "institutions." The political divisions of a given country often afford no clue to the history of its administration or to the circumstances of administration at any particular period. Administrative areas are divisible into political, financial and judicial districts. To the extent that the activities of government in such districts have exerted an influence which history is bound to recognize, just so great is the necessity for the sort of illustration of the fact which maps may furnish. Assuredly no one could explain feudalism without due appreciation of its geographical bases, or the antecedents of the French Revolution without possessing a clear conception of the political, financial and judicial practices operative in different parts of France under the "ancien régime."

What is true of governmental institutions applies to those of an ecclesiastical character. Even if the course of human enlightenment has not yet proceeded far enough to permit the share of religion in history to be handled as impartially as the political element, the fact argues in no fashion against the use of ecclesiastical maps within the limits vouchsafed by taboo. In order to ascertain in a measure what that share has been, the cautious bounds of inquiry will not be overstepped by having available something more than conventional signs attached to certain names and designed to show the seats of a few bishoprics and monasteries in medieval times. Maps, therefore, are needed on which it will be possible to trace the spread of religious ideas and systems, especially of Christianity, and to illustrate ecclesiastical organization, monasticism, mission work, religious revolutions and the like. It is quite impossible, for example, to understand the character and achievements of that mighty empire, the Christian Church of the Middle Ages, without a graphic representation of its administrative divisions, of the distribution of the monastic orders, and the multifarious activities of monastic life.

From the social and economic standpoint the possibilities of enlarging the scope of historical maps seem almost innumerable. A few instances may be cited. The distribution of races, the influence of ethnic stocks, the shifting of population, the processes of colonization are all phenomena that call for attention from the map-maker. In like fashion, the story of the industries and of the institutions connected with them must be told in graphic form, all the way from the primitive occupations of tribal settlement and village

community, through the manorial system and up to the complex activities of to-day and their environment. The kinds of commodities that have been brought forth, the scenes of their production and exchange, and the centres of traffic from the times of the markets and fairs onward, must be made known. The profound changes wrought by the Industrial Revolution must have a geographical setting that will help the student to understand their vast significance. Equally indispensable is an appreciation of the tremendous development of commerce and transportation. Not only the trade routes that have followed along natural highways, but those created by the hand of man, the roads, the canals, the railways, and the many other means of communication by which invention has overcome distance, must all be properly represented.

Intellectual progress, also, may be studied to great advantage on the map. One phase of it is education; hence the rise of universities, colleges and schools must be depicted. Works of literature, philosophy and science often require a geographical background to make their scenes and statements stand out in clear relief. The writings of the eminent men of all time take on a more definite meaning when associated with the physical and historical environment that maps afford. Nor can it ever be forgotten how wondrously man's intellectuality has expanded in coincidence with the territorial widening of his activities. The development of geographical knowledge and the multiple processes by which it has been attained, the deeds of the discoverer and explorer, the conqueror and the treaty-maker, the colonist and the empire-builder, performed beyond the seas, the evolution of the science of cartography, must be drawn upon most liberally by those who would understand and apply the newer concept of history.

While no single atlas, no collection of wall maps, large or small, to be prepared in many years to come may contain all, or even the major part, of the materials that have been suggested, the ideal of such completeness should be faithfully upheld. What already exists should be enlarged and diversified as opportunities may arise. The teacher should contribute the fruits of his reading and experience. The pupil should be encouraged to produce as well as to reproduce. Historical maps and their making may then serve to intensify the truth of von Herder's dictum about geography and history: "They are the stage and the book of God's household—history the book and geography the stage."

Introductory Courses in History at the University of Texas

BY DR. A. C. KREY, UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

The method of conducting the introductory course in history at the University of Texas has been materially changed in recent years. For some time there were two courses open generally to Freshmen—Ancient (History, 1) and Medieval (History, 2). These were conducted on the conventional text-book recitation plan. The number of students, however, increased out of all proportion to the number of instructors that the budget would permit. Such conditions made efficient teaching an extremely difficult, if not impossible undertaking. With the advent of an additional instructor in medieval history, however, we have been able to make a decided improvement. History 1 has been limited to a reasonable number of students, while History 2 has been changed from the three period recitation plan to the two period lecture—one period recitation method, and with especial emphasis on training, has been made the recognized introductory course.

This has been done for several reasons. The presence of two instructors trained in medieval history is a fortunate accident. The condition of preparatory work in the state is a more pressing consideration. Though there are some high schools in the state whose work will compare favorably with that of almost any similar institutions in the country, the number of those which do not is relatively greater than in many other states. Advanced work, therefore, has been seriously handicapped by the necessity of teaching rudiments which elsewhere are provided in the high schools. Furthermore, there is a large body of students here who will take but one course in the social science group. To bridge the gap, accordingly, between the high school preparation and advanced work in history, as well as to give the dilettante a real taste of the character of work in social science, it was thought expedient to emphasize train-

ing. To this end Medieval History would lend itself much better than Ancient History.

The enrollment in History 2 has risen rapidly to a total of five hundred and three for the current year. Three graduate students have been added to the staff as assistants. Lectures have to be given in two sections, while for recitation purposes the class is divided into sections of about twenty students. The framework of the course is supplied by Munro and Sellery "A Syllabus of Medieval History." The narrative is drawn from lectures, textbooks and corollary reading; while the recitation hour is used mainly to furnish the means for the historical training. For the convenience of the students, there is posted in a prominent place in the reading room of the library an additional outline of recitation assignments for the whole term's work. This contains also a larger list of corollary references than is contained in the Syllabus, specific requirements of reading for each week, as well as definite notices of maps, outlines, topics and written quizzes due. The existence, location and purpose of this outline is clearly announced at the beginning of the year; and, though the announcement is treated at first with the usual indifference, rigid insistence upon its provisions soon teaches the students their responsibility in the matter.

The narrative is by no means lost sight of in the course. The main object here, as elsewhere, is to give the students that broader knowledge and sympathetic insight into the lives of their ancestors during the period from the fourth to the end of the fifteenth century, which has been so well discussed in other articles of this magazine. That needs no emphasis here. The progress of training, however, has not been so explicitly described. Our first problems are, naturally, those of note-taking and reading analysis. Part of the first lecture of the year is spent in explaining the desirable points in lecture note-taking. Some further suggestions are made in the first recitation period, after which the students are permitted to go on making mistakes until the third week, when they are all called in for an individual conference. By this time they have encountered enough difficulties to make correction both profitable and welcome. Some few students have to be called in again with their note-books, but the note-books of the rest are not demanded until the end of the term, when they are graded and returned. By this time they have acquired enough skill to be trusted to improve their note-taking from their own experience. For the notes on the corollary reading they are further prepared by outlines. An outline of the chapter in the text is assigned for the first recitation hour. This is discussed in class on the basis of a model outline, and the same task repeated for the next chapter of the text. No more time is taken from the recitation, but the outlines are handed back with corrections. Painful experience has proven the wisdom of this simple assignment. By the time the students reach the third week they are ready to receive definite instructions on their reading notes as well. The usual mechanical convenience of uniform notes, explicit source citation, margins, indentations, chapter, page and paragraph titles are insisted upon, verbally on this occasion, later by examination.

For almost the entire length of the first term the range of required reading is confined to little more than a few parallel texts, and the amount required is about thirty-five pages per week in addition to the text-book. This may seem ridiculously insufficient to our more favored colleagues, but it is a heavy task for some of our beginners. Many of the students come from places where a few desk copies of rival texts, bestowed by zealous bookmen, are forced to do solitary duty as a library. To such students the very simple task of proceeding from the listed requirements to the actual reading thereof becomes a problem in advanced calculus, and, with the major portion of the class so handicapped, the

library reading room presents a rather chaotic appearance for the first month of the session. As the feverish excitement dies down, the students are assigned the task of outlining some small topic on the basis of a few simple references. They take notes, each point on a separate card, with the exact page reference affixed. The final outline, with each separate point authorized by a marginal reference, is handed in with the notes. Upon this occasion the students are in a proper state of mind to receive more or less lasting instructions in the use of a library and bibliographical conveniences. Not until the end of the second term are they permitted to compose a topic in essay form. But as the year goes on the range of the reading is gradually widened, so that by the end of the year all of them have had the opportunity to understand that the study of history has at least three dimensions.

The geographical training is a less difficult problem, for while but few students know much about the geography of Europe, most of them have had some experience in map-making. The review of the Roman Empire offers a good opportunity for emphasizing physical as well as political geography. Occasional reviews and sudden unexpected requests for locations are effective reminders of the constant importance of geography; while, as the work proceeds, political advances are mapped by the students, so that by the end of the year they are fairly well convinced of the necessity of geographical knowledge in history.

In the oral work the same progressive plan is followed. Questions designed to test the knowledge of text and lectures are the rule at first. Gradually a wider correlation is demanded. The cause and effect connection of events is reiterated and expected, and as rapidly as possible the students are weaned of the one cause—one result, attitude of mind. As the multiplicity of causes and effects is dawning on them, the relative importance is also emphasized. The necessity of supporting opinions by a convincing array of facts is greeted by the students at first, with rather obstinate opposition. After a while, however, they begin to understand that our insistence upon more facts is not necessarily a reflection upon their honesty, and they become more willing to provide the desired facts. They are ready then to take the further step of correlating events on their own responsibility, not only with earlier stages of the same development, but also with synchronous events not treated in the particular assignment. Casual recurrence to earlier lessons from time to time confirms the students in their suspicion as to the importance of such reasoning.

Thus far nothing has been said of the evaluation of sources of information. The necessity for more elementary training forces the emphasis on this matter to the last term. Incidentally, of course, in their bibliographical work they are, from the very beginning, required to note date, place and authorship of the books they read. Incidentally, too, these points are alluded to in the oral discussions, though usually from the desk. In the last term, however, direct attention is paid to this critical training. For this purpose source material proves most serviceable because the consideration of time and place of authorship, qualifications of writer, bias and other elementary limitations to observation appear more obviously than in most secondary accounts.* Source material as such, is used constantly, though at first mainly for illustrative purposes; while in connection with their topics the students are called upon to find out facts about the life of the authors whose works they have used. Now the attention is centered on a critical estimate of the

*Dr. Duncalf's "A Problem in the Use of Parallel Source Material in Medieval History." Published as a bulletin by the University of Texas, 1912, served as the basis for this work this year.

value of authorities and the various factors that enter in; these, once stressed, are regularly, often unexpectedly, alluded to, for the psychological effect.

The controlling lever of the course consists mainly, however, in the written quizzes to which student opinion attaches such an awful importance. Besides the regular mid-term written test of an hour, four ten-minute quizzes are given each term. A conscious effort is made to have these exercises instructional even more, perhaps, than tests of acquired information. Essential points made in lectures and recitations, probably treated with indifference by the students are called for sometimes with dire results. But that they have had the desired effect is pleasingly testified by the gradually increasing class grade on such quizzes. Thus, also, the term examinations are made to do progressive service. While the first term final is a more or less conventional test of their knowledge of lectures, text, and corollary reading, the second brings in additional elements. In this examination they are permitted to use their notes and text-books. The questions call for unaccustomed correlation of information, deductions from source extracts and discrimination in selecting the essential factors from an abundance of material. The existence of a time limit makes this examination both feasible and effective. With the previous announcement of the character of this test, it is, perhaps, unnecessary to add that the instructional staff does not have to examine note-books for this term.

Throughout the year's work it is our constant aim to keep the demand on the quality of work in advance of what the average of the students are accomplishing. It may be regarded as a delicate undertaking to keep the demands so gauged as to be a constant incentive and not a source of

discouragement to the students, but the fact that we conduct almost all of the recitations ourselves with the additional advantage of almost constant unsolicited reports of the psychological reactions of the students toward their course from numerous students, friends and colleagues, tends to minimize the latter possibility. Unexpected recurrence to points previously emphasized, occasional demands for correlations not hitherto made, and rigid adherence to the posted instructions by the staff lead the students to a sense of responsibility for their work and an initiative which is distinctly gratifying.

By no means is all that is desired accomplished, nor even all that is attempted. The uneven preparation of the students who come to us has created the ever perplexing problem of how to provide for the average without forcing the better prepared students merely to mark time. After some thought, we ventured this year to assign students to recitation sections according to their preparation, and so far as lack of previous acquaintance permitted also according to their ability. We did this by meeting all the students who enrolled in the course in a brief individual conference during the first week of the year. Not all of our judgments have proven correct. In fact, some of our mistakes have afforded us a great deal of personal amusement, often pleasure. On the whole, however, it has worked out satisfactorily, so much so that we shall repeat the experiment next year. Then as soon as the secondary teachers of the state achieve their ambition of raising their standards, and a closer connection is established with the high schools, we will be able to drop such unscientific procedure, and give our students the same grade of training and preparation for advanced work which is now given by the more favored universities.

A Proposal for the Federation of History Teachers' Associations*

BY CARL E. PRAY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

America is now and always has been obsessed to a very large degree with the idea that the "practical," always meaning whatever is connected with money-making, is the one thing that deserves the attention of the man of brains and energy. The ideal man to whom each community points as the one to be emulated by the young men is the man who is able to handle the largest business enterprises the most successfully.

For many years our educational institutions were not interfered with by the "practical" men because they did not believe that there was any relation between education and business efficiency, anyway, and since there was no money in education they paid little attention to it. When modern science began to attract attention as an educational movement, it could be shown that there is a direct relation between scientific instruction and making a living and in consequence the science departments at once gained the attention of business men, and because there was money in it, the science departments have secured all the money they have wanted for laboratories and equipment, or at least their demands have been satisfied first of all, while the other departments of school work have had to be content with what was left after the demands of science have been satisfied.

This has not been true because the results of scientific teaching have actually given students the ability to earn a living. The teachers of science have held that motive before the business man while they have cowered before the educational world's demand for mental discipline and have organized their courses to meet the ages' old requirement that school studies should be primarily for intellectual training.

Now comes industrial training which the school men are putting up before the practical men in answer to their demands that the schools turn their attention directly to the matter of showing boys and girls how to make a living. The whole thought of the school world is turned towards this one goal; the money, the energy, the political support that the superintendents need, all demand that they be focused for a term of years upon this one field, while the rest of the educational domain will receive incidental attention, only. I am well aware that this will not be true of higher education, but it is and will be most emphatically true of the public schools.

To all this movement towards trade schools, agricultural schools and hand work in the lower grades, I do not in any way take exception. I have written, spoken and argued in favor of them all, but I do wish to call the attention of this association most decidedly to the state of affairs and call upon its members to be alive to the situation. There are other things in the curriculum that demand attention besides science and industrial education. Our attention need be turned toward but one of these activities since there are others to look after the interests of the other lines of educational work.

What shall it profit this country of ours if it trains men and women to a high degree of economic efficiency and loses its ideals of patriotism and of self-government? A nation without traditions of which it is justly proud, without education in those traditions that it may fully understand them and profit by them, without a clear conception of the needs and ideals of the nation as a whole, is a nation without a soul and devoid of understanding. Such a nation we will

* Read before the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at Bloomington, Ind., in May 1912.

become in an increasing degree if our schools are to be devoted mainly to training children in making a living. The logical result of the present "practical" tendency in education would be to relegate to the rubbish heap all subjects not primarily industrial with the exception of reading, writing and arithmetic which even the most practical business man can see are necessary.

In the past there has been time for political training through the direct experience of the individual citizen. Political problems have been simple and the people have gone on the principle that if each section looked out for its own interests the combination of interests would check each other in such a way that a general average of equitable legislation and enforcement of law would result. However this plan has worked in the past, it can no longer answer the needs of the country. Legislation has come to be a specialized calling and the enforcement of law and its interpretation have fallen into the hands of a distinct class. Conditions have become so complex that it is no longer possible for the average citizen to understand even the terminology of legislation to say nothing of the machinery of government and the complicated issues involved, without special study. Legislative bureaus are being established to frame laws and to advise legislators in the individual states and special bodies of trained men are being empowered to direct the action of these laws and apply them. At the same time the individual citizen has far less time to devote to his public duties than formerly and prominent men are frankly declaring that the people are not to be trusted with the direct settlement of governmental issues. The day of competition has arrived in America and we are beginning to experience the problems and difficulties that European writers have always prophesied we would meet as soon as our country was fully settled. The real test of our institutions is about to be applied and I am convinced that the time has come for a campaign for far more intensive study and a far more wide-spread knowledge of our institutions and their history by the masses of the people than has ever been true in the past.

This will necessitate not only much more comprehensive courses in the schools, public and private, but a systematic effort on the part of historical and political science societies and public-spirited citizens in general to educate the great masses of mature citizens who are through school, who have never been instructed in the ideals and history of our institutions, and who are in consequence, at the mercy of the scheming demagogue or the wily political boss, while through their ignorance and susceptibility the country is switched back and forth from one extreme to another with resulting unrest and dissatisfaction and our institutions are endangered.

While the demagogue and the boss are working night and day, the historical associations proceed calmly on their way in academic serenity, almost unconscious of the critical period through which we are passing, but fifty years from now when it is all settled one way or another, they will right gladly and with scientific carefulness and impartiality sift and weigh the evidence and inform posterity how it all happened.

I wish to propose a national federation of history teachers' associations with the distinct purpose of conducting a campaign for popularizing the study of American history and institutions among the people themselves; for improving the teaching of history in our public schools through creating a demand for better-trained teachers of history and government and a demand for more adequate courses in these subjects; for spreading at once the departmental system in all our public schools through at least the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades so that a well-prepared teacher of history may have an opportunity of developing his subject as it should be developed to obtain desirable results; for a campaign of enlightenment

that the people may know that the evils arising from ignorance of our experience as a nation in the past and of the working of our institutions may be even more overwhelming in the end than the lack of skilled workmen in the trades and that there is no reason why we should suffer from either disaster if we meet the situation with our best efforts; for unifying and stimulating the work of our local associations that programs may not be duplicated or repeated to too great an extent and for informing the weakest and slowest association of the work of the best that all may be stimulated.

There are many other direct problems that such an organization could and would undertake to solve, not all at once nor with the idea of making everything right in a fortnight, but as opportunity offered and as the interests and abilities of the organization developed.

We have now a national organ through which a national organization may act and extend the results of its work broadcast through the country, I refer to THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE. Never before has it been possible to bring our associations together by a common bond of information concerning the activities of the different history teachers' associations, and I believe that one of the activities of a national organization should be the active support of this magazine until every member of every history teachers' association in the country is a subscriber to it. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE can only thrive through the support of every history teacher and the associations can never do their work effectively without such an organ as the MAGAZINE.

A committee was appointed by the History Teachers' Section of the American Historical Association at the Buffalo meeting to attempt a national organization of some sort or national co-operation, at least. Can not the purpose of this committee be best carried out by the appointment of a member from each association to represent the needs and ideas of each organization and co-operate with the central committee in suggesting programs for teachers' meetings and assist in getting the civic organizations of the cities to invite representative teachers of history and civics to address them on the need of more and better history and government instruction, incidentally instructing these same civic organizations, the members of which are always alive to any suggestion that is worth while.

I believe that never before were the people so alive to impressions concerning good government and good citizenship as now. If we come before them with a message they will hear us, if we are downright in earnest and we ourselves see clearly the benefits of a thorough understanding of American ideals of government and progress there can be no question but that our influence will be a material addition to those other influences that are shaping American life and thought.

Frontispiece—The Renunciations of the 4th of August

By ERNEST F. HENDERSON, PH.D.

The 4th of August, 1789, is one of the great days of the French Revolution. On it the nobles voluntarily renounced all feudal rights that had to do with personal service and agreed to redeem all that had to do with property. The signal was given by the Vicomte de Noailles, who rose and made the above suggestion during a debate in the assembly on what measures should be taken to make the common people pay their just dues and taxes. A perfect wave of renunciation swept over the house. In a few hours more radical changes were effected than had taken place in centuries. The engraving, by Helman, that commemorates this occasion is interesting in several regards. It is from a painting by the king's own painter, Monnet. What is particularly important for the student to note is the general arrangement of the hall, with the tables of the president and his secretaries on one side and the speaker's desk on the other. The clergy are on the president's right, the nobility on his left and the commons or third estate opposite him. Under the columns vast galleries stretched back accommodating as many as 2,000 people.

History in the Secondary School

EXAMINATIONS

BY J. M. GAMBRILL, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY AND CIVICS, BALTIMORE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.

Scope of the Subject

The subject of examinations involves a number of important educational and administrative problems. Should examinations be given at all? If so, how often? Should there be frequent brief period tests? How much relative weight should be given to the results of examinations in determining promotions? Very often the individual teacher has no control over the rules governing examinations, or at least nothing more than a single voice in determining the policy of the institution. These aspects of the question will in the main be ignored in this paper, it being assumed that examinations are to be held and that they have some part in determining the question of promotion, and that at least a few period tests from time to time are possible.

General Purpose.

The soundest view of examinations regards them as a distinct educational process, precisely like the recitation or the review exercises. One of their purposes should always be the testing of the teacher's own work, and he himself should from time to time give examinations in which this purpose is the main one in view. Mainly, however, the examination should be one of the various means employed for the education of the student. Among important aims of the examination should be the following:

- (1) To require the student to organize the knowledge he has acquired; to place events and influences in their proper relations; to obtain perspective.
- (2) To test the ability of students to apply their knowledge.
- (3) To give training in discrimination; to emphasize essentials, and to develop a sense of relative values.
- (4) To set up goals of attainment; to focus knowledge and power upon definite points.

It must be evident that such exercises as this bear a most intimate relation to review work, as that term is defined and explained and illustrated by Dr. A. M. Wolfson in his article in the May number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*. It is clear that the review and the examination are complementary; that they are indeed parts of the same general exercise. Where the older type of review, so vigorously denounced by Dr. Wolfson, prevailed, there was merely a more hurried and superficial study of the same mass of unconnected detail. In the older type of examination questions, there was a haphazard selection from those same unrelated details. Various books purporting to furnish "ONE THOUSAND AND ONE QUESTIONS" were available, and the making of examination papers often proceeded on much the same plan as the drawing of a jury. The result, of course, was to place a premium on cramming, and to produce many of those faults complained of by writers on the general subject of education. On such a plan the most thoughtful student with the soundest understanding and mastery, might make a very poor showing, while the student with an uncomprehending mechanical memory would outshine some of the best. Injury to health and other evils complained of might readily result from the pursuit of this same false ideal.

But where a teacher seeks something more than mere memorizing of detail, where he works for intelligent organization, for the ability to apply what has been learned, and for a sound understanding of the relative importance of events and influences—where these are the results tested—the terrors of the examination will mainly affect that class of students who prefer not to think.

General Principles.

Even with the observance of the ideas set forth in the foregoing paragraphs, the character of the examination must still differ somewhat according to circumstances. It will be a fatal mistake to indulge a contempt for detail which may lead to careless and inaccurate habits of daily work, for this would defeat the larger purpose which we have set up as the really worthy goal. This mass of detail, however, can be most thoroughly mastered

through the daily recitation and brief period tests, given at tolerably frequent intervals. At somewhat longer intervals the tests will throw the emphasis on those separate matters which are of the greatest relative importance, and on organizing and making applications within a limited section of the field. As the period covered by the examination lengthens, the character of the questions should become somewhat more general. Probably there should always be a place, even in an examination covering an entire year's work, for testing on separate events of very important character, since this will require the student to make an effort to keep those matters in mind; but it is a safe general rule that examinations of different character should be given for longer and shorter periods, with the idea of testing diverse results.

The questions should be wisely framed.

- (1) The first essential is that every question be absolutely clear and explicit, with no ambiguity or anything intended to be a "catch," but it should be remembered that a question requiring discrimination and accurate thinking is not a "catch" question.
- (2) It should be remembered that specific facts and details may be tested incidentally in questions that primarily call for organization or applications of knowledge. This is sometimes the most effective way to test matters of fact, because it tends to bring out the really essential phases of the subject.
- (3) There should be considerable variety in the kind of questions asked. For instance, some will require the tracing of a development, such as the growth of cabinet government in England, or the course of party history in the United States during a specified period. Others may call for an argument or demonstration which will incidentally test thoroughly the understanding of a period or group of facts. For example, we might ask for a number of incidents to show that the British Colonial Administration possessed a very inadequate knowledge of American geography. We might ask whether Roger Williams was persecuted on religious or civil grounds, and an intelligent answer with evidence would necessarily bring out some vital facts about conditions in early colonial Massachusetts.
- (4) Questions should be as concrete as possible. There is always danger of making them too abstract or too broadly general.
- (5) There should usually be some choice among questions for the student under examination to answer, and the best plan for this seems to be a system of grouping. An examination in English history, for example, might include groups dealing respectively with the geographical basis of the history, with political and constitutional development, with economic and industrial changes, with social progress, etc.

It has been assumed in these suggestions that the purpose of the review and examination exercises is educational. If it is simply an arbitrary business with no other aim than to "pass" the students or to get them admitted to college, then no discussion of the matter from the educational point of view is necessary. But a mere drill of this sort, unaccompanied by an intelligent effort to get all out of the subject for the students which its possibilities afford is at best a dull and profitless undertaking.

REFERENCES.

There is almost nothing to be had dealing explicitly with this subject from the particular point of view of the history teacher. The following are general discussions of tests and examinations, and contain much that is suggestive and valuable:

- Bagley: *Classroom Management*, pp. 242-249.
Bagley: *The Educative Process*, ch. xxii.
Chancellor: *Class Teaching and Management*, pp. 58-63.
Dutton: *School Management*, ch. xiv.
Strayer: *A Brief Course in the Teaching Process*, ch. ix.
Hallister: *High School Administration*, ch. xii.
Thorndike: *Principles of Teaching*, ch. xvi.

Examination Questions in History

Set by the College Entrance Examination Board in June, 1911.

HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY.

TUESDAY

1.30-3.30 p.m.

Important dates should be given wherever the nature of the question admits of doing so.

Make all your answers as complete and accurate as possible.

Wherever you can reasonably do so, make use of what you have learned from your reading outside the text-book.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. (a) Show that Persia was not a barbarous nation at the time it threatened the destruction of Greece. (b) By what means did Greek civilization afterwards penetrate Persia?
2. Describe: (a) the ancient Olympic games; (b) the influence of the Greek games in general.

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. Describe the classes of people, the government, and the mode of life of the Spartans.
4. (a) Describe the Delphic oracle and its influence. (b) Name an occasion when the Delphic oracle was invoked by the Greeks to meet national danger.
5. Give an account of the rule of the Pisistratidae in Athens, and show how it prepared the way for the later democracy.

GROUP III. (Answer one question.)

6. Show that you have a clear idea of five of the following subjects: Confederacy of Delos; Latin colonies and their rights; ostracism; Parthenon frieze; Pyrrhic victory; Achaean League.
7. Of the following, choose five and state for what each is noted: Phidias; Plato; Thucydides; Pliny the Elder; Virgil; Tacitus; Marcus Aurelius.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

8. Describe Cicero's work (a) as a writer, (b) as a statesman.
9. Describe Augustus' career and character. What changes in government were introduced by Augustus?
10. What book or books have you used on the social life of the Greeks or the Romans? Write a description of one of the following: Roman slavery; Roman religion; Roman houses.

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

11. Describe the various ways by which the following peoples recorded their achievements: (a) the Egyptians; (b) the Assyrians.
12. Give a brief account of the reign of the emperor Justinian. What part of his work has proved of permanent value?
13. On Map 46 indicate as accurately as possible (a) the scene of the ancient Olympic games; (b) the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire; (c) the route of Hannibal's campaign in the second Punic war, marking three battle-fields.
14. On map 51 indicate as accurately as possible the route of Alexander's campaign in the East, marking five places on his line of march.

HISTORY B—MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

MONDAY.

1.30-3.30 p.m.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Describe some of the civil functions discharged by the Christian Church during the middle ages which are now performed by the state.
2. Explain the main points in dispute between Henry IV and Gregory VII in the conflict over Investiture. What were the terms of the settlement of the conflict in Germany?

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. Write a careful account of either (a) St. Francis of Assisi, or (b) St. Bernard of Clairvaux.
4. Why was war the usual condition of feudal society? What political and industrial forces worked for the overthrow of the feudal state?

5. Describe the work and influence of Petrarch. When did he live?

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

6. (a) Name a standard work on the Holy Roman Empire. (b) When and under what circumstances did that empire fall?
- (c) Give the names of three of its emperors before 1250.
7. (a) Describe the work of Erasmus. (b) In what ways did he influence the Reformation?
8. Describe the revolt of the Netherlands, giving its causes, progress, and importance. When was the independence of the United Netherlands formally recognized?

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. Give the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht and show why it was so important. Give the date.
10. Why should Frederick II of Prussia be called the Great? Name one famous Englishman and one famous American who were his contemporaries.
11. Give an account of the establishment of the present French Republic.

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. On map 45 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) two Italian cities where the revival of learning was especially brilliant; (b) three important university centers in Europe during the fifteenth century; (c) five important trading cities in Europe (outside of Italy), before the discovery of the new world.
13. On map 45 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) the boundary of modern Germany; (b) the capitals of four of the most important European states of to-day; (c) one battle field where Napoleon was victorious (marking it V), and one where he was defeated (marking it D).

HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY.

TUESDAY.

1.30-3.30 p.m.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. What evidences of Roman occupation of Britain remain to-day? When and why were the Roman legions withdrawn from Britain, and in what condition was the country left?

2. Give a brief account of the labors of the Celtic missionaries among the Anglo-Saxons.

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. Explain five of the following terms: Danegeld, scutage, knight's fee, interdict, the Pale, Domesday Book.
4. Describe the life in the towns of England in either (a) the thirteenth century, or (b) the fourteenth century.

5. Name and describe two laws passed in the reign of Edward I.

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

6. What were the results of the Hundred Years' War (a) for England, (b) for France?
7. What were the difficulties at home and abroad confronting Elizabeth at her accession?
8. What were the causes of the Puritan emigration to America? Indicate the time of the emigration as definitely as you can.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. When and upon what terms did Ireland become a part of the United Kingdom?
10. Name three men who contributed to the building of the British colonial Empire and state the services of each.
11. Give an account of one of the following and name some outside reading which you have done on the subject: (a) John Wesley and the rise of Methodism; (b) Burke's attitude toward the American Revolution; (c) the Corn Laws and their repeal.

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. On map 43 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) two important towns of Roman Britain; (b) three towns or cities of Great Britain of industrial importance to-day, stating on the margin of the map the industrial activity of each.
13. On map 43 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) five seaports of present importance in the United Kingdom; (b) Calais, Canterbury, Isle of Wight.

HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY.

MONDAY.

1.30-3.30 p.m.

GROUP I. (Answer two questions.)

1. (a) Describe the character of the Elizabethan seamen, giving definite examples to illustrate your statements. (b) Mention some outside reading you have done on the subject.
2. Give the reasons for the early failure at Jamestown and for the more favorable progress of the settlement at Boston.
3. State the basis of the claim of each of the following European nations to lands in North America in the seventeenth century: England; France; Spain; Holland.

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

4. Describe the life of a Virginia planter in the eighteenth century.
5. Give a sketch of Franklin's training, indicate the kinds of political service he performed, and tell of any other way in which he was useful to his fellow-countrymen.

GROUP III. (Answer three questions.)

6. (a) State the terms of the "Monroe Doctrine" as contained in President Monroe's message of 1823. (b) What was President Cleveland's application of the doctrine in 1895?
7. Contrast the conduct of President Jackson in dealing with nullification with that of President Buchanan in the crisis of 1860-61.
8. Contrast President Lincoln's plan of reconstruction with the plan decided upon by Congress in 1867.
9. (a) What were the economic consequences of the invention of the cotton gin? (b) What were the political consequences of the discovery of gold in California?

GROUP IV. (Answer one question.)

10. Describe the town meeting in early New England and contrast it with local government in Virginia in the seventeenth century.
11. What are the provisions of the Constitution relating to (a) the election of members of the House of Representatives, (b) the election of United States Senators?

(Continued on page 132.)

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

BARRY, WILLIAM. *The Papacy and Modern Times*. The Home University Library. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. ix, 256. 50c.

The author of this volume states that his purpose is "to explain how it is that the twentieth of September, 1870, when he saw the Italian army enter Rome, forms a landmark in the history of Western Europe and, by consequence, in the development of modern society on both sides of the Atlantic." It is advertised as "the story of the rise and fall of the temporal power"; it is actually a brief history of the papacy with occasional illuminating characterizations of great men and their policies, but for the most part too limited in extent to be very interesting to the general reader. Certain chapters will be interesting to readers who have the main facts well in mind; but it is very doubtful if the high school student would find the book much more than a catalogue of names. The author's treatment of the abuses in the latter medieval Church is fair—he admits and deplores their existence as do most Catholic scholars of to-day; but it is extremely difficult for him to find anything to criticize in the methods of the Jesuits, and he asserts that the establishment of a permanent dictator over the Church by the declaration of papal infallibility in 1870 was a necessary step against anti-social and anti-Christian movements. He shows clearly that modern tendencies are wholly against the old national churches with special rights and privileges such as the old Gallican liberties of the French Church, but he seems to see nothing but good in this erection of a theocratic despotism in their stead.

The book may be useful to some history teachers, but it is not at all adapted for high school students' reading.

Clarence Perkins.

McGiffert, ARTHUR CUSHMAN. *Martin Luther, The Man and His Work*. New York: The Century Co. Pp. 397. \$3.00.

Professor McGiffert's biography of Luther which attracted favorable comment when published in serial form in the "Century Magazine" has now been issued in one volume and promises to become the standard popular life of the great leader of the Reformation. The author does not append all the apparatus of critical scholarship in the form of numerous footnotes and a critical bibliography of authorities, but it is evident that he has consulted the sources and given us a reasonably accurate account of Luther's career. The great virtues of the book, however, are its attractive literary style and the clearness with which the salient features are made to stand out before the average reader. The hero of the book is made to speak for himself in frequent extracts from letters and pamphlets, and his human characteristics so full of contradictions are charmingly portrayed. The excellent illustrations are mainly copies of contemporary paintings and are very numerous. The volume is eminently readable and interesting throughout and will be useful to teachers and for special reports by high school students where time permits. Probably it will be too long for regular assigned readings to be done by a whole class.

Clarence Perkins.

RICHARD, ERNST. *History of German Civilization. A General Survey*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. x, 545. \$2.00.

This book is an account of the development of German civilization from the earliest times to the year 1911. The author has very properly subordinated the narrative side of German history and throughout has constantly emphasized the characteristic traits of the German people: first, their strong individualism; secondly, their intense love of music; thirdly, their persevering, self-denying search for truth, a search so persistent, thorough, and methodical as to distinguish the German investigator above all others. He has done his work well, and the reader will lay the book down with a heightened appreciation of German contributions to world civilization.

Notwithstanding this general excellence, it seems inexcusable for a modern historian writing primarily for American readers to use such spelling as "Odowaker" for "Odoacer," "Langobards" for "Lombards," "Chlodowech" for "Clovis," etc. On p. 362 the date of the union of Hanover and England should be 1714, instead of 1734. Exception will certainly be taken by many to some of the author's statements; e. g., that the lives of Schiller and Goethe, "as well as their works introduce us to the ideal man" (p. 428); that without the help of the great capitalists "the Catholic Church would not have been reestablished in Southern Germany" (p.

249); that the conflict between Frederick Barbarossa and the Pope "ended with Frederick's victory" (p. 185). The book as a whole, however, is decidedly worth while, and, although unsuited for high school pupils, it will amply repay careful reading by more advanced students of history.

Howard C. Hill.

FOWLER, W. WARDE. *The Religious Experience of the Roman People*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 522. \$4.00.

The author divides the whole story of Roman religious experience into two parts: first, that of the development of the highly-formalized religious system of early Rome; secondly, that of the gradual discovery of the inadequacy of this lifeless formalism and of the grafting of an ever-increasing number of foreign rites and deities on to the state religion. The term "Religious Experience" is chosen because the religion of the Romans cannot be detached from their history. Therefore, in these lectures the subject is kept in continual touch with the history and development of the Roman state. The origin of the religion is sought in Roman life, both public and private. Indeed, at one time, far back in the simple, primitive life of agriculture and war for self-defence, it must have expressed the needs and aspirations of the people. That Roman religion sprang from the same root as Roman law "the one great contribution of the Roman genius" to the world, is ably demonstrated.

The second half of the book begins with the foreign conquests and contact with Greek philosophy. Here are traced the changes that occurred when with their faith, completely paralyzed and destitute of religious consolation, the Romans lost their greatest virtue—their sense of duty to the family and state. The introduction of new deities, new cults, and new rites follows. There are some very interesting chapters on Greek philosophy, mysticism, the religious feeling in Virgil, and the Augustan revival of ceremonies. The final chapter brings the subject into touch with Christianity, showing the contribution of Rome to the formation of the Christian religion. The thoroughness, scholarship, and constructive ability which make this work a great contribution to history will be appreciated by all teachers of Roman history, while the fine chapter on Virgil will be found especially interesting and suggestive to Latin teachers.

Victoria A. Adams.

INNES, ARTHUR D. *A General Sketch of Political History from the Earliest Times*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. vii, 419. \$1.50.

The declared purpose of the book is to give a conception of the unity of history as a whole through the presentation of "a ground plan of general history," and its scope and content may be inferred from these headings of the nine books into which it is divided, from two to five chapters constituting each book; "Early Peoples and Empires," to 500 B.C.; "The Glory of Greece and the Rise of Rome," to 200 B.C.; "The Roman Dominion," to 476 A.D.; "The Early Middle Ages," to 1080 A.D.; "The Later Middle Ages," to 1470 A.D.; "The Age of Hapsburg Ascendancy," to 1660; "The Bourbon Age," to 1789; "The European Convulsion," to 1815; "The Modern Nations." Following each book come several pages of auxiliary material consisting of lists of guiding dates and leading names, and a group of explanatory notes. Seven serviceable maps in black and white strengthen the equipment. The author, an experienced maker of books dealing with history, has successfully avoided superabundance of detail and a clear, succinct yet comprehensive conspectus is the result. Its value would seem to be much more for the general reader than for the high school student.

Wayland J. Chase.

THE CAMBRIDGE MEDIEVAL HISTORY. Planned by J. B. Bury. Edited by H. M. Gwatkin and J. P. Whitney. Volume I. *The Christian Roman Empire and the Foundation of the Teutonic Kingdoms*. New York, The Macmillan Co., Pp. xxii, 754. \$5.00.

This work is planned by Professor Bury on much the same lines as the Cambridge Modern History and according to the general preface, the eight volumes "are intended to cover the entire field of European medieval history, so that in every chapter a specialist sums up recent research upon the subject."

This first volume treats of the two centuries beginning with Constantine and stopping a little short of Justinian. The authors very wisely do not restrict themselves to matters coming only

within the period indicated, but constantly trace the growth of many medieval elements from ancient civilization, and, also, point out the continuance of certain characteristics of ancient times as late as they appear.

After the treatment of the work of Constantine and his immediate successors, there comes an able discussion of the growth of Christianity and the organization of the church, followed by an account of the Germanic migrations. An interesting and much-needed description of the nomads of Asia serves as an excellent background for the subsequent treatment of the Huns, Turks and other Asiatic hordes who time after time ravaged Europe during the Middle Ages. The foundation of the various Teutonic kingdoms, the last struggles of the Roman Empire in the West, and the history of the Eastern provinces down to the sixth century are described in a series of valuable chapters. The volume concludes with illuminating accounts of the rise of monasticism, the social and economic conditions of the dying Roman Empire, the literature and philosophy of the time, and the development of early

The work shares the advantages and defects of all similarly constructed histories. Twenty different authors have contributed to this first volume. As an inevitable result there is throughout the book a certain lack of unity and coherence and some needless repetition.

While there are many very interesting and well-written passages in the volume, the style as a whole is somewhat dry and tedious, and the subject matter for the most part is treated in an encyclopaedic rather than literary manner.

But the work deserves great praise. There is nothing in English quite like it. It is worthy of a place on the shelves of all students of the Middle Ages and will be found helpful as a reference work in any library. An excellent bibliography and a superior series of maps accompany the volume.

Howard C. Hill.

MYERS, J. L. *The Dawn of History*. New York. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256-500. 50c.

This is one of the Home University Library Series written by the Wykeham Professor of Ancient History at Oxford, who is well-known to scholars by his extensive anthropological and archaeological researches.

It is a clear, concise summary of the beginnings of history, and will prove a valuable help to teachers who begin the Ancient History course with an introductory survey of Oriental Civilization. The chapters on Egypt, Babylonia and the Eastern Mediterranean are especially good, and the geographical and industrial conditions are well described. The author has carried out successfully the object which he states in the introduction "to answer the question, how, when and where, each of the peoples whose doings have most affected the course of human history made its first historical appearance; and also, as far as we can, the reason why they made their appearance in this particular way."

Victoria A. Adams.

FERRERO, GUGLIELMO. *Characters and Events of Roman History*. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 264. \$1.50.

This is a reprint in the new student's edition of the much-talked-of lectures delivered at the Lowell Institute in November and December, 1908. The lectures have the following titles: "Corruption in Ancient Rome and Its Counterpart in Modern History"; "The History and Legend of Antony and Cleopatra"; "The Development of Gaul"; "Nero"; "Julia and Tiberius"; "Wine in Roman History"; "Social Development of the Roman Empire"; "Roman History in Modern Education."

So much has been said of Ferrero's merits and demerits in previous reviews of his works that it would be mere repetition even to mention them. We can, however, say with assurance that the book has a place in a high school library, where it cannot but have a stimulating effect.

Victoria A. Adams.

TARBELL, IDA M. *The Tariff in Our Times*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. x, 375. \$1.00.

This book is a review and commentary on the tariff legislation in the United States in the last fifty years. The larger part of the material had appeared before in the pages of "The American Magazine." The thesis of the book is that the popular will has been defeated repeatedly by the various tariff measures. The various tariff bills are considered in their order in a very informing way and in a way not very complimentary to their framers. "Rates," says Miss Tarbell, "are fixed with no more relation to the doctrine of protection than they have to the law of the precession of the equinoxes." The book is well written, and will be

found valuable and suggestive even though the reader sometimes dissents.

Thomas F. Moran.

HOLLIDAY, CARL. *The Wit and Humor of Colonial Days, 1607-1800*. Philadelphia, The J. B. Lippincott Co. Pp. 320. \$1.50.

"Early Colonial Humor," "The Humor of the Revolution," "The Humor of the Republic," and "The Humor of the Colonial Stage" are the headings of the four divisions of this volume. It must be confessed that some of this humor is hard to recognize, and it is clear that many generations were required to develop the power to make this characteristic American product. By the time of the Revolution evidence is at hand in the shrewdness of Benjamin Franklin's wit and the favor accorded to his "Poor Richard's Almanac" that the power to produce and appreciate humor had advanced far, and the author makes it plain that the Revolutionary War was fought effectively with words as well as with more material weapons. Sarcasm, satire and ridicule in both prose and verse were hurled by tory at patriot and back again, and the British generals came in for their full share of attacks in jingles that found much popular acceptance. Some teachers will find in this book matters of interest, but it is not adapted to the history library of the high school, for the aggregate of material that will serve the needs of the pupils is not large.

Wayland J. Chase.

The University of Wisconsin.

ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY. *The New History: Essays Illustrating the Modern Historical Outlook*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. vi, 266. \$1.50.

This volume of collected essays is primarily devoted to a survey of the changes which have taken place or will take place in historical writing and teaching because of the development of natural science and of democracy. The author displays a remarkable range of historical knowledge, drawing his illustrations from virtually the whole field of recorded history. The discussions of the "Fall of Rome," of the "Principles of 1789," of the so-called Renaissance, and of very many other historical themes are most stimulating, and few are the teachers of history who would not profit from a number of them.

The main purpose of the essays is, however, hortatory and prophetic. The author wears, with apparent comfort and with breezy grace, the old-fashioned mantle of the philosophy of history, recut and trimmed according to the suggestions of anthropology, social and animal psychology, evolution, and positivism. We fear that Bury ("Ancient Greek Historians," p. 256) would find unhistorically-minded the author's emphatic assertion that man has recently seen that he has progressed (p. 251), that William James ("Varieties of Religious Experience") would demur at the omission of religion as an element in human happiness, that many historians of the Protestant Reformation (e. g., McGiffert, "Martin Luther," p. 383) would deny the intellectual identity of Protestantism and Catholicism "in nine parts out of ten" (p. 117), and that Bernheim ("Lehrbuch," Kap. I, Abt. 4, *et passim*) would be pained at the statement that the historian "esteems the events he finds recorded . . . for the light that they cast on the normal and generally prevalent conditions which gave rise to them" (p. 52). But we are in error if these, and many other general observations, do not bring cheer to many a sociologist.

George C. Sellery.

The University of Wisconsin.

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- Rose, Clinton E. Civil Government of Idaho. Boise, Idaho. Synes-York Co. 151 pp. 60c.
- Schwinn, E., and Stevenson, W. W. Civil Government. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 375 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Texas. Constitution, with all amendments to date, 1911. Austin, Tex.: Gammel's Book Store. 25c.
- Watson, D. K. Constitution of the United States; instruction paper. In 3 vols. Chicago: American School of Correspondence. \$1.50.
- Wright, Richard R., Jr. The Negro Problem. Philadelphia: A. M. E. Book Concern. 47 pp. 25c.

College Entrance Examinations

(Continued from page 128.)

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. On map 32 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) the boundaries of the United States at the close of the War for Independence; (b) the territory "dedicated to freedom" by the legislation of 1820.
13. On map 32 indicate as accurately as possible: (a) the Louisiana purchase; (b) the states formed out of the Oregon territory; (c) the border states which did not secede from the Union.

Reports From the Historical Field

W. H. CUSHING, Editor.

The annual report of The North Central History Teachers' Association dealing with the annual meeting in May, 1911, has recently been mailed to members. The report contains record of the fact that the Association had affiliated with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association as the teachers' section of that body. The report contains a paper by L. A. Foulwider upon "High School Texts and Equipment in History;" a paper by Wm. O. Lynch upon "What should a High School Course in Civil Government Comprise?" and a brief paper by Professor M. N. Trenholme upon "The Preparation for the High School Teacher of History."

The Mississippi Association of History Teachers met at Gulfport, on Friday, May 3, under the presidency of Mr. R. George Smith. The program included "The Purpose of History Teaching," by H. M. Ivy, of Yazoo City; "The Aim of Teaching Civics," by R. P. Linfield, of Biloxi; "The Recitation in History," by J. H. Colkin, of Pittsburg; "The Correlation of History and Government," by L. A. Smith, of Pascagoula; "How to Teach the Adopted Text in United States History," by Professor F. L. Riley, of The University of Mississippi and "The Use of the Library in Teaching History," by G. F. Boyd, of Kosciusko.

The Russell Sage Foundation of New York has published a pamphlet entitled "Suggestions for Celebrations of the Fourth of July by Means of Pageantry," written by Wm. Chauncey Langdon, who composed and directed the Thetford, Vt., Pageant in 1911. Arthur Farwell contributes an article upon "The musical possibilities of such celebrations."

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY ASSOCIATION.

The fifth annual meeting of The Mississippi Valley Historical Association was held at Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., on May 23, 24, and 25. The Thursday afternoon meeting was devoted to a study of anti-slavery movement in the Northwest, with papers by Professor H. N. Sherwood of the University of Cincinnati, Professor Harlow Lindley of Earlham College, Professor F. Geiser of Oberlin College, and the Hon. D. W. Howe of Indianapolis. The president's address was delivered on Thursday evening by Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, of the University of Chicago. It dealt with the subject "The Supreme Court and Unconstitutional Legislation—Historical Origins." On Friday there was a joint meeting of the Teachers' Section of The Mississippi Valley Association with the History Section of the Indiana State History Teachers' Association, the chairman being Professor Edward C. Page of the State Normal School at De Kalb, Ill. Miss Herriott Clare Palmer of Franklin College spoke upon the "Freedom of Teaching in History." Mr. Charles Alexander McMurry, Superintendent of Schools, De Kalb, Ill., dealt with the subject, "Teaching History by Type Studies." Another joint meeting of the two history teachers' sections was held on Saturday morning, when Mr. Joseph R. H. Moore of the Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, discussed "The Art of Presentation in Teaching History." Mr. Carl E. Pray presented "A Proposal for the Federation of History Teachers' Associations" and Professor Frederic L. Paxson of the University of Wisconsin presented a report of the committee on the certification of high school teachers of history. At the joint meeting on Friday evening, a number of special papers were presented, including one by Professor Orin Grant Libby of the University of N. Dakota upon "Our New Northwest," by Mr. John R. Swanton of Washington, D. C., on "De Sota's Line of March from the Viewpoint of an Ethnologist," by Professor Louis Pelzer of the State University of Iowa on "The Disintegration and Organization of Political Parties in Iowa, 1852-1860," and by Mr. Chas. Manfred Thompson of Champaign, Ill., "Attitude of the Western Whigs toward the Convention System." On Friday evening, Dr. M. W. Jernegan of the University of Chicago delivered a paper upon "Factors influencing the Development of American Education before the Revolution" and Dr. Paul L. Hayworth of N. Newton, Ind., spoke upon "The Truth about the Battle of Lake Erie."

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The ninth annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association was held at Stanford University, April 5th and 6th. Papers were read as follows:

"Royal Finances in the Time of Henry III," Professor Henry L. Cannon, Stanford University.

"The Norman Sheriff and the Local English Courts," Professor W. A. Morris, University of Washington.

"Robert Grosseteste and the Intellectual Revival in England in the Thirteenth Century," Professor Louis J. Paetow, University of California.

"Oregon's First Constitution," Professor Robert C. Clark, University of Oregon.

"The Virginia Committee of Correspondence from 1759 to 1770," Professor E. I. Miller, Chico State Normal School.

Professor Cannon, in his paper, stated that the financial history of the reign of Henry III has not been fully worked out on account of the inaccessibility of the records. He suggested therefore that the American Historical Association might undertake to have the Pipe Rolls and other financial records photographed and the copies deposited at some point in the United States. The branch endorsed Dr. Cannon's proposal, and voted to transmit the proposal to the Association.

The teachers' session considered the topic, "Economics in the High School." The subject was ably presented in two principal papers. Miss Anna G. Fraser, of the Oakland High School, answered the question, "Has Economics a Place in the High School?" There are two chief objections to high school economics. The first is that there is a lack of competent teachers. In answer to this it may be said that economics is here, apparently to stay, and the universities must supply the teachers. To the second objection, that high school pupils are too young, it may be pointed out that there is little difference in age between high school seniors and college freshmen. Moreover, the high school has the advantage of small classes, the recitation method, and five periods a week, while the college has large classes, the lecture method, and fewer periods.

The second paper, by Professor Stuart Daggett, of the University of California, dealt with the topic, "The Content and Method of High School Economics." He said, "I believe in high school economics. I believe in it because I think that the boy and girl who are to pass on economic questions as voters should be trained in economic reasoning by disinterested teachers before they are called upon to vote. They will get lots of training anyway from self-appointed political instructors—but this isn't worth much. I want to see every voter accustomed to the analysis of economic problems and to the criticism of economic arguments before his decisions have to count." The high school cannot discriminate between those who are going to college and those who are not; therefore the high school economics course should be complete in itself. Professor Daggett discussed statistics gathered from all over the country, but chiefly from California, which indicated that the teaching of economics is now widespread, and that the demand for it is increasing. Over 80 per cent. of the high school courses in economics are in the fields of principles, commercial geography and economic history. Professor Daggett's paper will be printed in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE in the near future.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual spring meeting of the Association was held in Springfield, Mass., on Friday and Saturday, April 19th and 20th, 1912, Professor W. S. Ferguson, of Harvard, presiding. While the larger part of the audiences was made up of teachers from the vicinity of Springfield, nevertheless Eastern Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Connecticut were all represented.

At the session of Friday evening, Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle welcomed an audience of about one hundred and fifty, who followed with close attention Professor George Burton Adams' interesting and thoughtful discussion of "The Historical Novel." The speaker dwelt on the characteristics of various novels, pointing out their defects and advantages as material for teacher, student and general reader. He especially commended the contemporary novel of a past society, citing Fielding, Smollett, Anthony Trollope and Thackeray.

At the Saturday morning session the Association considered the aim of teaching and studying history, government and economics, with regard particularly to business and community affairs. The first speaker was Professor, Edwin F. Gay, dean of the Harvard School of Business Administration, who spoke for history. The study of history gives a business man a sense of proportion, a balance, and a feeling of toleration. It is becoming in college the great cultural subject.

Referring to a suggested course in history by Dr. Snedden, Mass., commissioner of education, in a recent number of the "Atlantic," Professor Gay thought that such a course, made up of bits of history, government, economics, ethics, sociology, etc., was all right for the teacher, but not for the pupil. The latter should have straight history. We should teach history that the pupil may understand the present. The teacher should especially dwell on causes, the "why," of historical events. As an illustration, Professor Gay spoke of the full descriptions of the industrial revolution, but the lack of statements of its cause. This revolution, he pointed out, was a result of the colonial expansion of England into temperate climates, with its attendant increase in the demand for staple English goods produced in mass. This increasing demand and widening market, together with the deficiency of labor supply in England, forced a change in methods of production.

Mr. George P. Hitchcock, principal of the Brookline High School, spoke on the teaching of government. He emphasized the need of teaching principles, giving many practical illustrations of his method.

A general discussion followed. A suggestion from Professor MacDonald that the Association direct its efforts towards securing recognition from school and college authorities of the importance of more and better equipment was heartily received.

Luncheon was served at the Hotel Kimball to thirty-five members and guests. A valuable paper by Mr. Waldo L. Cook, of the "Springfield Republican," on "The Press in Its Relation to History," closed the exercises.

The next meeting of the Association will probably be held in Boston in December, in connection with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association.

History Teachers' Associations

BY WALTER H. CUSHING, SOUTH FRAMINGHAM, MASS.

Co-operation of teachers in colleges and secondary schools is nowhere more marked than in the field of history. The two or three associations of a decade ago have multiplied over seven-fold; local associations and conferences are likewise on the increase; while the number of State associations with history teachers' sections still further increases the number. There is, also, a tendency for these latter to break away from the general organization and form independent societies. Finally, the American Historical Association with its teachers' conferences, the newly-appointed Committee on Co-operation among History Teachers' Associations, and THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE forms a general clearing house and a strong unifying force.

The activities of these associations are numerous. There are the annual or semi-annual meetings with papers and addresses on both method and subject matter; many of these are published in Proceedings and in this magazine. Then, too, numerous investigations of courses, methods, material and results have been conducted and furnish a basis for intelligent progress; and some associations, notably the New England, have issued syllabi which are in general use among history teachers. Other publications of permanent value are the bibliographical aids issued by authority of the Middle States Association and by the Teachers' section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Movements to define the preparation which a teacher of history should have and to improve the equipment of history departments, are among the latest activities of a general character.

The work of history teachers' associations will appear to better advantage in the following brief summary of some of the most active societies.

CALIFORNIA.

In this state there is, first, the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association. This body is only indirectly interested in the teaching side, but its annual meeting in November is a source of great inspiration to secondary teachers.

Then there is the History section of the California Teachers' Association. This body was formed in 1909, and meets twice a year: in December in connection with the State Teachers' Association, and in July in connection with the summer school session of the University of California. The Association issues no regular proceedings, but several papers, notably one by Mr. H. W. Edwards, on The Preparation of the High School History Teacher (September, 1910) and a History Reference Library for high Schools (April, 1912) have been published in the MAGAZINE.

Finally, there is the May First Club, a group of about forty men teachers, meeting annually for discussion and social intercourse.

MISSISSIPPI.

In Mississippi is a flourishing association, founded four years ago, and now conducted under the auspices of the Mississippi Historical Society.

The Association has published a series of papers presented at its meeting in 1908 as Bulletin No. 1. Its meeting this year was at Gulfport, May 3, in connection with the Mississippi Teachers' Association.

MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

Probably the largest independent association is that comprising the Middle States and Maryland. This association, formed in 1902, now numbers about two hundred and fifty, and holds its annual meetings regularly on the second Friday and Saturday in March. It publishes an annual report containing the full text of papers read and abstracts of the discussion. In addition to these reports the Association stood behind the publication of the Bibliography of History for Schools and Libraries, by Andrews, Gambrill and Tall, with a financial guarantee. (HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, January, 1910). At present three committees are at work on important topics: one to investigate the training of teachers of history for secondary schools in the Middle States and Maryland; another, to investigate the teaching of historical geography; the third, to investigate the teaching of economics in secondary schools.

The great area covered by this Association led, several years ago, to the organization of local conferences. The most active are the Maryland, the New York City and the Trenton. An interesting account of the first is to be found in the October, 1909 number of the MAGAZINE. Reports of the other two are in the February and March, 1912 numbers, respectively.

INDIANA.

One of the oldest associations is that in Indiana, formed in 1898. It usually meets in April or early in May. The work of this society has been along the line of better history teaching in this state. Reports of its meetings in recent years may be found in volumes one and two of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION—TEACHERS' SECTION.

A pioneer among history teachers' associations was the North Central, formed in April, 1899. After an independent existence of twelve years, during which it held meetings twice a year, it became on May 20, 1911, the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. A special session at the annual meeting in May is devoted to the teaching side of historical work and the papers are published in the Proceedings of the M. V. H. A. A strong feature of this Association's work is its annual Bibliography of History and Civics, a critical estimate of new works, which is of great service to teachers. The membership at present is about one hundred and twenty.

MISSOURI.

The Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government was organized in May, 1908. It grew out of the department of history of the Missouri State Teachers' Association. It holds two meetings a year, the annual meeting in May, and the other in the late fall, in connection with the State Teachers' Association. The Society is affiliated with the State Historical Society; members of the first are also members of the second, and the payment of the annual dues of one dollar entitles a member to the Missouri Historical Review, a quarterly publication of the Historical Society. A certain portion of the space of this quarterly

is at the disposal of the editor of the teachers' society. One of the best things the Association has done was its investigation of actual teaching conditions in Missouri schools, the results being published in the *MAGAZINE* in February, 1911. Much credit for the work of the Association is due to Professors Fair and Violette of the Normal School at Kirksville, who are now at work on a syllabus of local history.

NEW ENGLAND.

This Association was the outcome of a meeting of a number of teachers of history in colleges and schools who met in Cambridge in April, 1897, as the guests of the Committee of Seven. An organization was effected and the first meeting held in October of the same year. Since then two meetings have been held each year, usually in Boston, but one meeting has been held in Portland, Me., Hanover, N. H., Hartford, Conn., and Providence, R. I., and two in Springfield, Mass.

The papers and addresses have been published in Annual Reports, but henceforth *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* will be the regular medium of the Association, its papers for 1911 being published in the May, 1912 issue.

Besides publishing its addresses, the Association has prepared and published through D. C. Heath & Co., a Syllabus of History for Secondary Schools; An Outline for the Study of American Civil Government, Macmillan Co.; Historical Sources in Schools, Macmillan Co.; A Catalog of Historical Material (in press, Houghton, Mifflin Co.); and several Series of Historical Pictures (Mabelle L. Moses, Putnam St., West Newton, Mass.).

Taking its cue from the admirable collection of aids to history teaching, prepared by Professor Henry Johnson and Professor James Shotwell, of Teachers' College, New York, for the 1909 meeting of the American Historical Association, the New England Association, through a committee of which Professor Arthur I. Andrews was chairman, has collected and arranged a valuable lot of historical material consisting of maps, charts, casts, implements and pictures. This collection is open to the public at Simmons College, Boston, and a new and enlarged catalog will be published this spring by Houghton, Mifflin and Co. The character of its series of historical pictures may be seen in the frontispiece illustration of the current number of this *MAGAZINE*.

The Association numbers over two hundred, and meets in the fall, usually in October, and in the spring, usually in April.

NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION.

On Friday, the fifth of April, the teachers of history and government present at the meeting of the Inland Empire Teachers' Association at Spokane, met and organized a Northwestern Association of History Government, and Economics Teachers. Professor Leroy F. Jackson, of the Washington State College, chairman of the committee appointed a year ago, presided at the meeting, and Mr. M. M. Beddall, of the Spokane schools, was elected temporary secretary. A constitution was adopted, and the following officers elected: President, Professor C. S. Haines, of Whitman College, Walla Walla; Vice-President, Professor C. S. Kingston, of the State Normal School, Cheney, Washington; Secretary-Treasurer, Professor Leroy F. Jackson, of the State College of Washington, Pullman. Mr. W. L. Wallace, of Spokane, and Supt. C. A. Sprague, of Waitsburg, Washington, were elected to serve with the officers on the Executive Committee.

The constitution of the new association provides for two meetings a year, one at the same time and place as the Washington Educational Association, and the other at the same time and place as the Inland Empire Teachers' Association. The membership embraces teachers from the states of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana. The plan is to carry on a considerable amount of work by means of committees. The Executive Committee has already appointed chairmen of committees on texts and Reference Works, Curriculum, and Local History. Other committees will be appointed later. The work is being taken up with an enthusiasm that encourages belief in the success of the new organization.

TENNESSEE

The meeting for organization of a Tennessee History Teachers' Association, was held in Nashville, on April 5, and was addressed, among others, by President Ayres, of the University of Tennessee; Dr. Lilian W. Johnson, of the Memphis High School; Dr. K. C. Babcock, of the Bureau of Education; Professor Rall, of the

University of Tennessee, and Professor St. George L. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University. The officers of the Association are: Professor James D. Hoskins, Professor of History, University of Tennessee, President; Principal J. A. Robins, of the McTyeire School, McKenzie, Tenn., Professor Max Souby, of the Middle Tennessee State Normal School, Murfreesboro, Vice-Presidents; Professor St. George L. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University, Secretary-Treasurer. These with Miss Lizzie L. Bloomstein, librarian George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville; Dr. Lilian W. Johnson, of the Memphis High School, Memphis, and Professor P. W. Lyon, of Maryville College, Maryville, Tenn., constitute the Executive Committee.

TEXAS.

A very healthy organization meets annually in connection with the State Teachers' Association, usually during the Christmas vacation. At the last meeting about one hundred teachers attended the history section, and many engaged in the discussion of the papers. Out of the discussion arose a definite consciousness of a great need for improvement, accompanied by a keen desire to affect such improvement. A motion to appoint a committee of five to investigate conditions and report to the next general meeting was carried unanimously. That committee has begun its work by drawing up a questionnaire. The teachers of the State are responding in a way to gladden the heart of anyone seriously interested in the profession. The report of the committee will probably be ready by the end of Summer. In the election of officers, Dr. Chas. W. Ramsdell was elected chairman; J. A. Hill, of West Texas State Normal College, vice-president; and Miss Bess Hackett, of Marlin High School, secretary-treasurer.

VASSAR ALUMNAE HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Unique among history teachers' organizations is that of the Alumnae of Vassar College. This Association was formed in 1896 "to strengthen the educational bond of union between the Alumnae and Vassar College . . . and to increase the number of works on history in the Vassar College Library." This latter object has been realized to a gratifying degree, and in each book thus acquired by the library is the beautiful book-plate designed by Mr. E. D. French.

The Association has about two hundred members, and meets annually on the Saturday nearest Washington's Birthday. It publishes its proceedings.

History Teachers' Associations—Secretaries

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—W. G. Leland, Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.—H. W. Edwards, Berkeley, California.

CALIFORNIA.—History Section, State Teachers' Association, Maude F. Stevens, Palo Alto.

COLORADO.—History Section, University—High School Conference. James F. Willard, Boulder.

INDIANA.—Herriott Clare Palmer, Franklin.

KANSAS.—Raymond G. Taylor, Manhattan.

MARYLAND.—Ella V. Ricker, Baltimore.

MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.—Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, New York City.

MISSISSIPPI.—R. George Smith, Liberty.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—Teachers' Section, Howard C. Hill, Normal School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

MISSOURI.—Eugene Fair, Kirksville.

NEBRASKA.—Mattie Cook Ellis, Peru.

NEW ENGLAND.—Walter H. Cushing, So. Framingham, Mass.

NEW YORK CITY CONFERENCE.—Moses Weld Ware, Morristown, New Jersey.

NORTH DAKOTA.—R. M. Black, Wahpeton.

NORTHWESTERN ASSOCIATION.—Leroy F. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

OHIO.—Organization in process. D. C. Shilling, Hamilton.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—Mae H. McCrery, Groton.

TENNESSEE.—St. George L. Sioussat, Nashville.

TEXAS.—Miss Bess Hackett, Marlin.

TRENTON (N. J.) CONFERENCE.—Sarah A. Dyne, State Normal School.

TWIN CITY.—D. H. Holbrook, East High School, Minneapolis, Minn. (Pres.)

VASSAR ALUMNAE HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—Adelaide Underhill, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

WISCONSIN.—Carl E. Pray, Milwaukee.

LIST OF MEMBERS

OF HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

History teachers make up a large proportion of the membership of the American Historical Association, and of the Pacific Coast Branch of that Association, but as the Association publishes biennially a list of all its members, it has not been deemed advisable to print the list here.

ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS' OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND.

Mrs. Robert Abbe, City History Club, New York City.
 Annie Heloise Abel, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.
 Ida Ale, 332 West State Street, Trenton, N. J.
 Grace Albert, Miss Shipley's School, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
 Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bingley Anderson, The Misses Masters' School, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
 Ada M. Andrews, 3305 Windsor Mill Road, Baltimore, Md.
 Elizabeth A. Andrews, Miss Baldwin's School, Bryn Mawr, Pa.
 Isabel S. Arnold, Plainfield Seminary, Plainfield, N. J.
 L. Louise Arthur, Bryant High School, Long Island City, N. Y.
 Edna L. Bacon, Barringer High School, Newark, N. J.
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 A. B. Bates, Morris High School, New York City.
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 Harold F. Biddle, Morristown High School, Morristown, N. J.
 A. S. Beatman, Polytechnic Prep. School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Katharine F. Belcher, Newark High School, Newark, N. J.
 May K. Biggins, Manheim Street, Atlantic City, N. J.
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 Henry R. Burch, Manual Training High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 George L. Burr, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
 Arthur P. Butler, Morristown, School, Morristown, N. J.
 Eliza R. Butler, New York City.
 Clara Byrnes, Normal College, New York City.
 James O. Campbell, Westminster College, New Wilmington, Pa.
 Leonora E. Carpenter, Eastern High School, Baltimore, Md.
 Elizabeth M. Carroll, Arundell School, Baltimore, Md.
 Mary C. Carter, St. Timothy's School, Catonsville, Md.
 Sally R. Carter, St. Timothy's School, Catonsville, Md.
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 Frances S. Conner, High School, Scranton, Pa.
 Louana Conover, State Model School, Trenton, N. J.
 Mary T. Convery, Columbus School, Trenton, N. J.
 Henry S. Cooley, Jersey City High School, Summit, N. J.
 J. Archibald Corlies, 29 East Park Street, Newark, N. J.
 Susan E. Coyle, Miss Madeira's School, Washington, D. C.
 James G. Croswell, Brearley School, New York City.
 Edgar Dawson, Normal College, New York City.
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 Elsie M. Dwyer, High School, Montclair, N. J.
 Sarah A. Dynes, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
 Margaret C. Eaton, Com. High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Eloise Ellery, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
 Marjorie Ellis, Maywood, N. J.

Margaret T. Englar, Western High School, Baltimore, Md.
 Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 E. Georgien Ewing, Franklin High School, Reisterstown, Md.
 William Fairley, High School of Commerce, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Sister M. Fidelis, Mount St. Agnes College, Mt. Washington, Md.
 Anna E. Foote, State Normal School, Jamaica, N. Y.
 Edmund W. Foote, DeWitt Clinton High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
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 J. Montgomery Gambrell, Dept. of Education, Baltimore, Md.
 Lois L. Gaskill, Polytechnic Prep. School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Alice N. Gibbons, East High School, Rochester, N. Y.
 Emmett E. Giltner, N. Y. Training School for Teachers, New York City.
 Sister Gonzaza, St. Mary's Cathedral, Trenton, N. J.
 W. Grant Goodwin, Curtis High School, New York City.
 Louise K. Greene, 9th Grade and High School, Montclair, N. J.
 Louise H. Haeseler, High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
 S. Carleton Haight, City College, New York City.
 Edith R. Hall, Veltin School, New York City.
 Mary A. Hall, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Charles Ham, DeWitt Clinton High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Clarence I. Hebron.
 Louise J. Hedge, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Miriam B. Heidenis, 348 West 55th Street, New York City.
 Cheesman A. Herrick, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Chester P. Higby, State Normal School, Fairmont, W. Va.
 Carolyn Hinman, Wm. S. Cook School, Trenton, N. J.
 Frederick C. Hodgdon, 70 Fifth Ave., New York City.
 Dwight Holbrook, Dr. Holbrook's School, Ossining, N. Y.
 Samuel B. Howe, Jr., Plainfield High School, Plainfield, N. J.
 A. W. Hughes, McKenzie School, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
 Charles H. Hull, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
 William I. Hull, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
 Lucy B. Hunter, National Cathedral School, Washington, D. C.
 Spencer P. Irvin, Lincoln School, Trenton, N. J.
 Mary S. Jobe, Normal College, New York City.
 Henry Johnson, Teachers College, New York City.
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 Annie N. Knapp, Richmond Hill High School, New York City.
 Daniel C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark, N. J.
 Edith Latané, York Collegiate Institute, York, Pa.
 Antoinette Lawrence, Jamaica High School, Jamaica, N. Y.
 Ernest Dorman Lewis, High School of Commerce, New York City.
 W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
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What Others Think of History Teaching

Opinions Drawn from Addresses before the May First History Club

BY PROFESSOR J. N. BOWMAN, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

The May First History Club was in a way an outgrowth of the Schoolmasters' Club of San Francisco. In the Schoolmasters' Club men gathered in social evenings to chat over school questions, to listen to papers on a variety of subjects, and to discuss policies and ideals from many points of view and from many fields. It served well its purpose; but a new need arose which it could not serve. It was more especially out of this need among the history men that the History Club grew. The academic history was taken care of by the annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, and the same organization in its Teachers' Session provided for the academic and teaching sides of the high school history work. In 1908-09 this need of a more frequent and more intimate association of the history men of the Schoolmasters' Club was felt. The question was discussed individually; a meeting was called for May 1st, 1909, to discuss the question collectively; the twenty-two men present favored an effort to have such a club "find itself"; a very loose organization was voted; a "factotum" was elected "to call meetings when and where and for what papers he wished." Because of the date of the first meeting it became known as The May First History Club. The Club meets three times a year in San Francisco. After a luncheon at 12.45, the talk or paper is given and then discussed until about 3 o'clock. The membership is very flexible, and consists of the history men from the grades to the universities.

"Finding itself" was the Club's first problem. The factotum attempted to secure the Club's answer to this question in the second meeting in a paper on "Has History a Practical Value?"* The analysis of the "practical value" was applied to history with the conclusion that it has a "practical value" in reading, studying, writing, teaching, and in living history. The paper elicited much discussion; many conflicting ideas and theories crossed and resulted in the original question, what is the value of history. From a professor of education came the statement that laborers in some places are trying to put mechanics in the schools at the expense of the subject they feel least worth while—history; that students "hate" history, many teachers also; and that something is wrong with the subject, the subject-matter, or with its teaching. The first meeting was, therefore, successful in indicating the Club's line of work: what is the use, value, or worth-whileness of history to persons in the different walks of life, so that we teachers may learn whether we are teaching a worth-while history to the next generation in these walks. Along this line the Club has been working.

Mr. Walter McArthur addressed the next meeting on "History in the Educational System." He is an ex-seaman, editor of the *Coast Seaman's Journal*, and for long years has been one of the most prominent and most respected of California's labor leaders. He denied that labor as a whole had ever asked for mechanics in the school at the expense of history; history is a worth-while subject if it is taught as a

worth-while subject. He compared life to the sea; the present is the ship of life; he posited the belief that every man, nation and age has a conscious or unconscious aim or ideal as a port; the past is the wake of the ship by which the pilot directs his course toward the port. This "life's chart" is forgotten in the history texts and books; this he illustrated by reference to the disjointed and disconnected references to the labor questions of Spartacus, Cade and the movement of the nineteenth century. The teacher must see and get the laborer's child to see the wake of labor's craft back to the days of Rome and beyond. He insisted that this method is of vital interest to the laboring people whether labor facts are taught or not. The "three r's" are of first importance to the labor people; the secondary branches, if the laboring child can get them, are headed, he believes, by history; because of its "life chart" possibilities. He took up several standard texts of the grades and high school and pointed out the lack of threading of facts; the failure of the chapters of the nineteenth century to see the significance of democracy. History, he believed, repeats itself, repeats its errors, prejudices, and ignorance of its past. He urged a writing of a history of labor in California in order that the labor leaders might use it in counseling the men. Strikes are repeated almost every five years with the same errors and mistakes; the written word could be read to the error-repeating strikers—"for all books have something of the Bible about them to the laboring man." He urged teachers to know more about that life for which they were teaching the children. History has a value to the laboring man—if the teachers will only give it to them.

Mr. Charles A. Murdock addressed the next meeting on the view of history from the standpoint of the printer. He emphasized the "wholeness" of education, and especially in history, in order that "standard facts" may be seen in their relative importance. He criticized many of the current definitions of education. He regretted that the great freedom of election of subjects in the school was depriving many students of hard work. It was noted in the discussion that the elective subjects re-act on both student and teacher—that there is no incentive for "doing it well"; and also that statistics show that students in college do not elect the "snaps." Mr. Murdock was definitely of the opinion that history should be brought down to date in all instances. He also agreed to the fact that nine-tenths of the people judge men rather than things, and that history, therefore, should be more definitely a training in judgment rather than in facts.

Mr. Chester H. Rowell, editor of *The Fresno Republican*, next spoke on the value of history to newspaper men. The history that is of value to the newspaper man must be the continuous and connected story of something, as well as the training in making for himself such continuous and connected stories. Facts are fragmentary truths. They are like the bricks for a building: the brickmaker makes the former, the mason makes latter. Only the few are engaged in "mak-

* Published in substance in this MAGAZINE in January, 1910.

ing" facts; while all students, and persons—and newspaper men—are busy with the building of something out of these facts. Perspective is another historical feature needed by all men, and should receive more emphasis in history teaching than it does. Perspective, with the resulting tolerance, sees conflicts and questions from both sides simultaneously as well as both sides in their continuity. It neutralizes the class-mindedness in the social strife, and chauvinism in national relations. He sees to-day a growing "intellectual anarchy" in America—a tendency that is of value. It indicates on the one hand an increased body of knowledge and on the other a conscious effort to comprehend these facts.

Newspaper men work with the Here and Now and see things in the real and natural perspective; clear seeing is, however, artificial. The newspaper man deals with the *real* history, the events of the day, while the history student deals with the testimony of the events—testimony often of the newspaper man's making. A training in history—with its continuity and its perspective—aids the reporter in seeing his events not only in the present time, but in all time. This Mr. Rowell illustrated by citing the views of his colleagues and students in the University of Illinois regarding the meaning, etc., of the Spanish-American War at its outbreak. He also stated that the Republican party to-day does not catch the value and meaning of Insurgency. He further illustrated this point by citing the attitude of the coast toward Oriental labor: economic interests desire this cheap labor; but history opposes it. History, he feels, also teaches loyalty to truthfulness in the scientific spirit. This, joined with the historical perspective, is of value to men in the conflict of labor and capital as well as to the newspaper man in writing thereof: it aids in breaking down the "forever" which is branded into all things and customs of "the people."

In the discussion Mr. Rowell demanded more study and training in nineteenth century and present-day history. It may not be "scientific history," but what of it? The majority of students in the school system are not scientists nor prospective ones; the detailed facts are not all known and never will be, but the big effective facts and threads are known and should be handled and taught in order to get the continuity, perspective and truthfulness. Such training gives a present-day stock of historical facts and a training in handling the facts of the Here and Now.

All these facts and threads, and especially the historical method, are of the greatest value to the newspaper man. As a reporter he may not be able to use them to any great extent in the machine and system of which he is a part; but later some of these reporters will become the owners, managers, editorial writers, and moulders of public opinion—there is where they do need training in history.

Hon. Curtis H. Lindley, president of the California State Bar Association, then read a paper on the value of history to the lawyer. The historical nature of the law itself, he pointed out, makes "essential the knowledge of its origin, the conditions of society in which it had its inception and the various stages of development through which it has passed." The function of the lawyer is not limited to case work; he is called upon to aid in the making of new laws; in this work he must know the old law, "its origin, the environment in which it was framed, the state of society to which it applied, and the reasons which caused it to be enacted. This necessarily involves the study of history." The place formerly occupied by the Bible as the basic justification of law is now occupied by history. The present "mechanics of justice" were "framed on the seventeenth century concepts"; the manner in which this machinery works and especially how it may be bettered depends on a knowledge of history. As citizen the lawyer has much to learn from history and its methods; in defense of this idea he quoted from the preface of White's "Seven Great Statesmen." He contended that

the lawyer "may add to his influence and stature by devoting himself to a conscientious study of that part of the human history which is the best part, which will enable him to appreciate cause and effect, and thus to intelligently guide those who have never ceased to rely upon his efforts." In the discussion Mr. Lindley believed history study and work should be brought down to the present.

President David Starr Jordan, of Stanford University, gave an address on "The Biological Aspects of History." Chronology and geography have been considered the two eyes of history; he urged another eye—biology. This idea came to him while going over the battlefield of Waterloo in company with Professor Otto Seek, who wrote on the fall of the ancient world. Professor Seek was interested in the conditions of those days, but was not interested in their application to the present. Rome sent her best men to war and to war's destruction; the best did not, therefore, breed the best; Rome bred downwards. The sifting out of the best is done by several factors, but war is the greatest of all. Pious men and women entered the cloisters of Italy; the weaker, the less pious and courageous kept the race going. War was the most honorable of professions in Europe down to the eighteenth century. For more than twelve hundred years war and the cloister strained out of the race the best men and women. This affected the biology of man, and therefore the history of man. Professor Seek has pointed out the destruction of men in the wars of Rome until the "human harvest" was spoken of in the time of the Antonines. President Jordan pointed out that this did not mean that Rome was degenerating, but that Rome was "down-breeding"; the strong only occasionally produced degenerate offspring. There is scarcely a drop of Greek blood in existence to-day; and only a few families of the strong of Rome have continued to the present. The wars of England have practically destroyed the "squires" of two centuries ago. Cromwell's men no longer live on the farms of Huntington—only Cromwell's weaklings. Spain gave sons in abundance, but wasted them in the Netherlands and America. Napoleon took 600,000 men to Russia, but brought back only 20,000. The Civil War in America left 12,600 acres of Northern sons on the Southern fields. The skulls of Napoleon's dead would make a pyramid thirty-one times higher than the Washington Monument; the War of 1861-65 produced a similar pyramid ten times higher than the same shaft.

This sifting process created a vacuum that must be filled; in America it is filled by immigration. America has won the men from Devonshire who did not believe that God made some men bridled and saddled for other men booted and spurred to ride: "Chester is sleepy to-day." America and Canada have secured the "men of the Glen" in Scotland—expelled to make hunting preserves for the nobles. England's loss has been America's gain; but from other parts of Europe are coming in greater numbers men less stern in character and less courageous in spirit; and these latter are the fathers of the future Americans. We are doing what Rome did—bringing in strangers to fill up the vacuum made by the loss of the sons of Boston and Virginia. The danger to-day is from the weak, not from the strong.

The breeding of men, he felt, was perhaps the greatest and most dominant factor in history, and urged its consideration by the students and teachers of history.

One of California's foremost merchants, Colonel Harris Weinstock, spoke on the value of history to the business man. To the business man generally history appeals as a matter of facts and dates; but in his own case he has found it much more. He noted the old literary history which publishers found going out of date in the middle of last century, and which was replaced by the "sociological school." In this new school he saw two tendencies: one which gave facts only, the circumstance but not the substance; the other gave the broader horizon and point of view, the generalizations that

could be used as rules of conduct. These two ways, he felt, would indicate the two ways of history teaching in the school system: memory culture, the one; the other of greater and chief interest and value—a training in generalization, in noting cause and effect, in following threads of interest.

The *trader* is very like the politician: he deals in daily barter in a small locality with the dollar as the immediate end. The *merchant* is very like the statesman: he has the world for his field; he is concerned with the future as well as with the present; he is interested in establishing a lasting business. The merchant studies men, their desires, demands, wares, trade, conditions, surroundings, movements; he studies the history of all of these; on the basis of these facts he judges and generalizes, makes his purchases and places his stock to meet the demand of to-day and to-morrow. His success depends upon this ability to judge the business future from the business past and present. History, Mr. Weinstock believed, is the best study for this training. Aside from this training, the general culture of the study of history gives the merchant the best of assets for meeting many men at many points. He cited the following as one of the uses to which he has applied his knowledge of history. On account of the disorganization of his office work a business friend found it necessary to withdraw a holiday each month which he had granted to his office force. Mr. Weinstock advised against the withdrawal except on a basis of an extra day's wages per month in lieu of the holiday; for he recalled from his Roman history that privileges won from the patricians by the plebeians became rights when the former attempted to withdraw them. The advice was taken with the best of results. He advises his employees to study history and biography in order that they may be of greater service to themselves and of greater use to their employer.

Mr. Weinstock urged that history be brought down to the present; he believed that commercial history could give the training in the use of facts, but doubted if it could give all that history in the broader sense can give.

At the next meeting Rev. Bradford Leavitt, of the First Unitarian Church, San Francisco, spoke on the value of history to the minister. The minister in his work often finds much of the "anthropomorphic idea of history"—that all has been done and completed in a perfect manner by the hand of God. On the other hand, the characteristic note of the age Mr. Leavitt found in evolution—that all is in the becoming, is growing and changing. The ministerial world now recognizes the latter and can now see evolution in the parable of the seed and its growth and in the work of St. Paul. The Bible itself is an evolution in contrast to the completed Koran and the Book of Mormon. The story of Abraham and Isaac may not be factually correct, yet it does illustrate the evolution of the Jewish people from the stage of human sacrifice to that of animal sacrifice. The historical setting and growth of religion is often forgotten, especially by such men as Payne and Ingersoll, and by those who would find authority in the Bible for slavery and lynching. Israel learned her religion and morality through ages of development in the same way that Germany developed her music from the early folksong to Beethoven's symphonies. Mr. Leavitt objected to Balfour's idea of progress; one must admit that evil has increased and perhaps deepened, but so has good. Progress is comparative and uneven, to-day it is along more lines, however, and for a greater number of people than ever before. People develop, history shows this development, this is history's value to the minister.

In the discussion Mr. Leavitt stated that he desired the threading of facts, which he called "philosophy of history"—but which may also be called "interpretation" on account of the uncertain use of the word, philosophy. National history is now becoming international history. Credulity regarding the older stories of the Bible is now shaken; yet credulity itself still remains—but for new things in thought, in Indian Yogaism, etc.

The last paper, in April, 1912, was given by Mr. Fred G. Athern, head of the Bureau of Economics of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company, on the value of history to the railroad man. His advice to college students anticipating a railroad career is to study English, philosophy and history, and after these subjects things of their own choice. English gives them the tool of language; philosophy trains them in tolerance, broad sympathy, ability to separate the important from the unimportant; history gives methodology, the interplay between environment and emotion, between the individual and the race. He posited the "historical faith" of the identity of human nature, and on this basis saw the expansion of peoples, the rise of labor troubles, etc., in the past. A knowledge of these facts helps a railroad man to understand the distributions of peoples, relief of congestion, and the mixing of people into a democracy. The labor troubles of Rome and the Middle Ages are very like those of to-day; an understanding of the one will aid in the understanding and handling the other. In teaching history effectively, Mr. Athern believes in beginning with present human nature, its interests and emotions; then through these learn and understand the acts of the same human nature in the past. This is what he called the "egoistical method." In history as well as in other teaching more philosophy and psychology are needed. Things are not decided by intellect and reason alone; the emotions and interests play a very large part. Emotions usually make the decisions, reason explains later. The present stage of the development of the teaching methods is far behind the stage of development of the business method; the former is by no means so closely analyzed and adapted as the latter. Were the teacher with his stage of method development thrown into the business world, failure would result almost instantly.

The foregoing will give an idea of the Club's work—a work that does not encroach upon the field of any other history organization, not even on the History Section of the California Teachers' Association, which was organized since the Club began its work.

One of the Club's chief benefits is the social meeting of the history men from the universities to the grades. In the sphere of history and history teaching it is found worth while to meet business and professional men on a basis of a discussion of our subject in their life and work. It is obvious that these men are engaged in the enactment of facts and events which the history men will later study. These men seem of one mind relative to facts alone or to "fact hunting"; in this work the profession itself has its own methods of "fact finding" which are very unlike those used by the history student. These men demand the use of facts for professional existence; the history teacher can be and too often is satisfied when the facts are found. These men all insist that history can help them in the use of facts if it will only do so. On the one hand they urge more training in what may be called "the logic of history": a training in threading facts, in generalization and inference, and in raising the constant query regarding the "why" of events. On the other hand, they urge a greater interest in the past like that interest they have in the present; a knowledge of the natural and social environment, the interests and characteristics of the people, the public opinion and ideals of an age. These men, who are engaged in directing and combining the factors of life in the making of history, see in the past such a direction and combination of life factors, and make a distinction between the facts as seen in the books and the life which produced the facts. And finally these men also urge that history should be brought down to the present and should be so taught in the schools.

The Harvard Commission on Western History*

BY PROFESSOR FREDERICK JACKSON TURNER, HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

It is a national spirit, not a sectional feeling which animated the University in creating the Harvard Commission on Western History, for the West has always been not so much a region as a fundamental process in American development. To collect material on this phase of our history, is to deal with the American people in what is perhaps their most characteristic activity—the formation of society in successive wilderness areas from sea to sea. All the older eastern sections, New England, the Middle States and the South, have participated in this process and have been profoundly influenced by it. The West itself has transformed these migrating settlers, has fashioned its own types of society, institutions and ideals. It has become an independent and creative element in American life, contributing in its various provinces to the richness and variety of the national character, and demanding study for its own sake, and for its influence upon the destiny and the ideals of the United States. The lessons of self-sacrifice, simple life, courageous toil, optimistic faith, the power of initiative, and the achievements of pioneer democracy, which the history of the westward movement teaches, are to the college men of the present-day lessons from which they may learn their own responsibility for helping to keep the America of the future true to the promise of the America of the past.

Even if the West were not so interwoven with our whole national life, there would be a duty incumbent upon Harvard to preserve the memorials of New England's share in the movement, for New England cannot be properly understood if considered by herself alone. It is necessary to recognize the fact that there is a New England vastly more extensive than that within her own sectional borders, a New England that is a part of the life of the expanding nation. A large share of her people, her resources and her ideals have been embodied in the West, and the West, in turn, has reacted upon her own life and interests.

From the days when Cambridge settlers, moved by "the strong bent of their spirits," as they said, pioneered the way to the frontier of their day in the Connecticut Valley, New England has been the "Northern Hive" whence swarms of her people have gone west.

The cordon of official "frontier towns" which received the brunt of Indian and French attack was succeeded by the advance of the Berkshire frontiersmen into the Green Mountains of Vermont, and this in turn by the pioneers who laid the foundations of civilization in the Old Northwest under the great Ordinance which is the model of our territorial system. The planting of a greater New England in central and western New York and Ohio was followed by the extension of a broad zone of settlement by New Englanders and their New York children in Michigan, Wisconsin, and the prairies of Indiana, Illinois and Iowa. Here during the formative period they furnished political leaders, editors, teachers, missionaries and preachers for the beginnings of society in these vast new lands. In the days when the pioneer was carrying the burden of reclaiming the stubborn wilderness New England men and women with devoted faith and sacrifice helped to keep bright the fires of education, religion and ideals on the western hearthstones. And while New England was settling in the Middle West, she furnished leaders for the Oregon movement which planted a New Northwest on the shores of the Pacific where Yankee whalers and merchants in the China trade had sent their pioneering ships before. The Mormon exodus was led by men of New England origins. Whatever may be thought of their revelations, the political and industrial basis of the society which they spread

throughout the Great Basin, was the New England town, shaped by them to the new uses of an irrigation community, the economic unit of the arid West. Even in Texas, too, New England had a share, for the first successful American colony there was the work of Moses Austin, a Yankee by birth, and his son Stephen Austin. The last president of the Texan Republic, when she was absorbed into the Union, was Anson Jones, once a doctor in the Berkshire hills of Massachusetts. The same energy of New England expansion is shown throughout the newer West.

It would be hard to overestimate the importance of the political relationships of New England, New York and the Middle West in the formation of the Free Soil and the Republican parties and in the Civil War. The beginnings of Kansas, for example, can only be understood when the Emigrants' Aid Society is studied in the light of the New England companies for western settlement, and when the ideals and traits of the settlers of New England stock in that state are duly considered.

Less discussed by the historian, but highly influential, was New England's share in developing the resources and providing means of transportation in the West. Before the middle of the nineteenth century New England capital, withdrawn from Oriental commerce and the whaling industry, once so important to her economic life, was seeking new investment. When the history of the transportation systems of the West shall be fully written it will be found that many of the most important lines owe their inception and construction either to those who, as young men left New England towns to make their fortunes in the West, or to those who were of New England parentage. The capital for some of the greatest of these lines was that very capital which turned from ocean ventures to investment in the West.

But New England was not alone in this expansion into the new lands; the leaders and the capital came from many sections, and important as the railroad has been as one of the pioneering forces in Western history, the interest of the commission is by no means limited to this section or to this class of material. It seeks evidence of the expression of the Western spirit and of the types of Western society in all their varied aspects.

For the addition of current books and such of those now out of print as may be picked up, the Charles Elliott Perkins Foundation makes provision. Harvard's collection of books upon the West is already one of the strongest in the country. But it is hoped that the same appreciation of the importance of the subject that led to this generous provision, will be shown by others in donating to the library, either through the commission, or independently, such manuscripts, family papers, newspaper files and pamphlets as will, with her existing collections, make Harvard the obvious university centre in the East for the study of the West. In this work Harvard graduates all over the nation can be of service, by information concerning the location of material as well as by gifts.

It is not desired to deprive any Western State or local library of material to which they have a better claim. Rather it is desired to coöperate with them in procuring duplicates, and types of sources already abundant in the libraries of separate States, but insufficiently represented in any single collection for the study of the region between the Alleghenies and the Pacific as a whole. Where papers in private hands have an interstate importance, or where such material exhibits aspects of the West already covered by the collections in the region in which it is found, but lacking in the East, Harvard may without impropriety make her plea for consideration.

* Reprinted from "The Harvard Graduates' Magazine," Vol. 20, June, 1912, No. 80.

Among Eastern families there is much scattered manuscript and pamphlet material, reminiscences written for children, and old files of newspapers which illustrate the part played by the East in the settlement of the West, in the development of its resources, and in contributions to its intellectual life. Such papers also often include letters and other material from the West, exhibiting conditions there in various periods and regions. Harvard asks these families to join with her in preserving in this great collection the memorials of our later colonial era, in perpetuating the work of those who were a part of our own Elizabethan age of trans-Allegheny development.

It has been justly said in discussions of the work of the commission, that there is pressing need for a more suitable building for the Harvard library. This great collection of books is too valuable a national possession, too fundamental an element in the work and the fame of the University to be inadequately housed. But until this need is met, the University will arrange to preserve such important papers as may be confided to it, under safe conditions. It will place them also under reasonable restrictions in regard to use.

To the question, which is often asked, what classes of material does Harvard wish? it can only be answered that the whole life and interests of the West are to be represented,—all the important issues, all the significant movements, all the really influential, social, economic and political types of the varied sections of the West. The whole truth about all parts of the West is what is sought. It will be easier to return material which duplicates the present collection or which seems more fitting in some local collection, and to answer specific inquiries, than to enumerate the University's wants in the field of Western history. In general these wants may be indicated by the following:

Newspaper files, maps and atlases, pamphlets, letters and journals are especially desired. For the literature of politics Harvard would welcome party handbooks, and campaign material illustrating the methods and the spirit of party procedure in State and local, as well as in national, issues. State and municipal official documents are already being collected by the department of Government to which the commission would be glad to refer information on this class of material.

In the field of economics the University desires sources illustrative of Western currency, banking and taxation. Old account books and letter files exhibiting business methods, prices and wages are wanted. Reports of boards of trade, and agricultural societies, old trade journals, the proceedings of waterways conventions, railroad conventions, irrigation conventions and such evidences of the varied economic activity and interests of the Western people are looked for. The traits and development of pioneer communities, the growth and problems of the Western cities, afford other opportunities for collection. The University needs typical sources to exhibit the development of the different fundamental industries of the West, such as farming, transportation, mining, lumbering, cattle raising, land companies, manufactures, and so on. The collection and application of capital to such industries is another field for collection. The process by which railroads have marketed their lands, colonized home-seekers from other sections and from Europe, advertised their territory and promoted its development, requires the preservation of data which is rapidly disappearing. Railroad archives should not be lost or neglected as too often in the past has been the case.

Into the West has poured an unceasing tide of emigrants from the Old World and settlers from Eastern States, colonizing regions comparable in size and resources to nations of Europe. They have formed institutions and society under the differing conditions of the prairies, the plains, the forests, the mining regions, and the arid lands. The Indian fighting, and the romantic episodes of Western advance are

more likely to be preserved by the local historians, and the exceptional aspects to be described by the traveler, than are the really typical and normal features in this formation of new social types. The process is rapidly coming to an end as the vacant spaces of the West are occupied. In the future we shall seek for the spirit of this colonization of the later West, and are likely to look in vain for just the information we most need. The letters and journals of emigrants, travelers, and settlers, anniversary sermons, addresses, etc., all the unconscious evidence of the attitude of the moving peoples toward the problems of assimilation, of adjustment of old customs and institutions to new conditions, should be brought together. In isolation such sources may seem trivial and transient; but when collected in a great library, they exhibit the psychology and the processes of a most important phase of American history, the formation of society itself.

For adequate study of the West we need also to increase the already rich collections at Harvard on the literary production of the various Western sections, exhibiting their spirit and their conceptions of themselves. We need additional material on the progress of churches and religious movements in all the Western regions, such as reports, year books, and similar publications of all denominations. More and more the historian is coming to write of the psychology, the inner life and spirit of the common people. For such a study America possesses exceptional attractions and exceptional difficulties. Its diverse sections, its rapid changes, its complex interests, combine to make it important to gather the necessary sources of this study, as well as for the life and work of industrial and political leaders, before they are scattered and lost.

The Charles Elliott Perkins Foundation is not intended to be exclusive. It is a precedent for others who may wish to furnish special collections in Western history, and in the history of other sections, to Harvard University. The establishment of this particular foundation is significant, not only as recognizing the importance of the West in the nation, but also as showing how, through successive generations, have run the energies of the expanding life of the American people. One generation of the founder's family were leaders in that Canton trade which touched in the course of its development the shores of the Pacific Northwest. In a second, James H. Perkins, the author of "The Annals of the West," represented that generous impulse which carried New England philanthropy into the Ohio Valley, and fostered literature and education, in the days of the pioneer. The next generation found its representative in a railroad president, who with creative imagination pushed the lines of a great system out onto the prairies beyond the Mississippi in advance of the pioneer. His daughter, transmitting an inherited appreciation of the Western movement in American life, and keenly aware of the importance of promoting the history of the United States, has furnished the means for the Charles Elliott Perkins Foundation. It is an important step in a movement of national significance. The Harvard Commission on Western History is designed to enable others with the same spirit that has animated Mrs. William Hooper to aid in contributing the data needed by the scholars who in the future shall investigate the origins of the American nation and write its history.

In January, 1912, appeared the first number of a quarterly magazine devoted to a thoughtful discussion of city problems and a careful chronicle of municipal events. The new paper is entitled the "National Municipal Review." It is edited by Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Esq., of Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. A. Beard, of Columbia University; Professor John A. Fairlie, of the University of Illinois, and Arthur Crosby Ludington, of New York City. The editorial office is The North American Building, Philadelphia. The publication office is 1427 York Road, Baltimore, Md.

The Problem of Emphasis in Western Schools

BY ARTHUR C. MILLSAUGH, AUGUSTA, MICH.

"Western America," observes James Bryce, "is one of the most interesting subjects of study the modern world has seen." Teachers of American history, however, who live and teach in this vitally significant section do not seem in general to have caught Bryce's enthusiasm or his point of view. Many continue to present their subject in Montana or in Oregon precisely as they would present it in Massachusetts or in Pennsylvania. It is not strange that they do so. Most of them have been educated in the Middle West. In their graduate study, they have worked in most cases under men who have absorbed the traditions of eastern universities. Moreover, in the West, as in the East, many teachers still follow too faithfully the leadership of the text-book. Up-to-date text writers are, of course, giving increased attention to the "westward movement." One book gives "greater prominence than has been usual in school texts to the advance of the frontier and to the growth and influence of the West"; while a "special feature" of another book is "its emphasis on the westward-moving frontier as the most constant and potent force in our history." This is as far as we can ask or expect a text-book to go. To be used in all sections, it cannot be written from the standpoint of one. The Western teacher, therefore, will look in vain for a text written in the full spirit of the West, boldly interpreting its economic, social and political individuality, and showing thoroughly the various interesting reactions of West upon East.

Finally, the Western history teacher, in common with many of his colleagues, has not yet quite abandoned the old spirit of history teaching. The research student and the antiquarian may continue to juggle with the incidental and the episodal. But the high school teaches history, not for the sake of history, not even for the sake of culture, but to satisfy the concrete needs of future citizens. We teach boys and girls history, not to make them know the past, but to make them know the present, to make them able to meet with sanity and understanding the perplexing social, economic and political forces—historical resultants—that constantly play around and upon them. This aim should determine emphasis.

We have listened wisely to the poet:

"New occasions teach new duties; Time makes ancient good uncouth;

They must upward still, and onward, who would keep abreast of Truth."

So, we who deal in the raw with the vast complicated interactions of men and have struggled to keep abreast of the big truths of the evolving world, demand new text-books every decade and relocate the emphasis every year.

But is this enough? Is not the place-factor as important as the time-factor? The Montana boy and the Massachusetts boy live in radically different environments. The same presentation of historical facts is likely to enlighten one and confuse the other.

This does not mean the teaching of the so-called "local" history. Much of this, in my opinion, is purely antiquarian and has no environmental significance. The West, moreover, has little of this sort of history. Much needs to be done in preserving local records; but this is not a task for overcrowded and immature high school students.

It does not mean, either, the substitution of sectional for national history. We must not neglect those events, however, remote geographically, which explain national institutions. These institutions, however, are not so potent in the average man's life as those institutions which are peculiar to his own community. Consider, for example, the effectiveness of a civics teacher from the East, who, in teaching county government in Montana, should fail to take note of

the different machinery and the greater importance of certain functions. National institutions, moreover, are understood best in their local applications and manifestations. A national convention does not make machine government intelligible; but a State, a great city, a congested ward does. It seems to me, too, that in the past we have been teaching too much nationalism. We have made our subject a too ethereal thing. We have soared with our reluctant students to a Mount Olympus, shown them *dei ex machina* in the shape of Washingtons, Websters and Lincolns, and fed them pre-digested ambrosia capsuled into palatable "periods." It has all been too providential, too symmetrical. We need to come to earth. And in coming, let us set foot in the place where the student lives. Let us no longer teach Eastern history to Western students. If we must scatter our shot, we might better devote some time to a broad, tolerant, peace-loving internationalism rather than to give all to the super-dread-nought type of nationalism.

The teacher of history and civics in the West assumes an almost solemn responsibility. His country is in the making. His students are to create commonwealths, locate cities, determine the course of commerce. The new ideal of education, according to a recent writer,* demands "that the main emphasis of schooling should be placed on the social side, or preparing the boy and girl, that is, for effective living as a member of the community of which he finds himself a constituent part." If this demand is apparent in a crystallized society, how much more apparent is it in a society that is in a state of change and formation? To the youthful West older societies offer sage object lessons, at our "last frontier" long lines of influence terminate, and in our fresh Western institutions century-old tendencies are culminating. In first surveying this stimulating opportunity for adaptive practical teaching and real community service, the history teacher may well feel the thrill of large discovery,

"Like some watcher of the skies

When a new planet swims into his ken;
Or like stout Cortez,† when with eagle eyes
He stared at the Pacific—and all his men
Looked at each other with a mild surmise—
Silent, upon a peak in Darien."

A brief statement of the points that I try to emphasize in my own teaching may be suggestive to other Western teachers.

First, the student should have a well-proportioned understanding of the basic geographical features. As much time should be given to the Rockies as to the Appalachians. Call attention to mountain gateways, the direction of valleys, the courses of rivers, the harbors, the distribution of rainfall, the location and character of mineral deposits. Maps in the new text-books show the old Oregon and Santa Fé trails; but they should also show the present Pacific trunk lines.

The West boasts no ancient history. It played no positive part in either great American crisis. Subjectively, of course, the unorganized territory west of the Mississippi was of central significance and influence in the struggle over slavery; and, conversely, the Civil War was a vital factor in the healthy upbuilding of the West. But, as a whole, the history of the West has been the simple story of steady colonization and rapid economic development, with picturesque explorers and Indian fighters blazing the trail. The student who is looking for comparisons will see that American expansion westward is akin in part to Greek, in part to Roman, and in part to English colonization, but different in its broad outlines from all. My American history class in the

* Secretary James P. Munroe, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

† The poet's error.

West usually contains representatives of at least a dozen States, most of them middle Western. Their fathers are the sons and grandsons of pioneers in an older section. In this connection, every western teacher should read Professor Ross's suggestive chapters on the middle West in his "Changing America."

In the West economic influences predominate. Federal legislation intended to assist in the development of the West should be sharply emphasized from the standpoints of cause, purpose and effect. This legislation has included acts granting land to railroads and to schools, the Homestead Acts and the Carey Land Act. In parts of Montana, the Great Northern Railroad deserves as much attention as many events in colonial history that are granted generous niches in our text-book Pantheons. In many Western towns, the railroad appears to dominate absolutely the habit of thinking and course of action of the citizens. It overshadows all else: vast, sinister, omnipresent, omnipotent. In one town, the magnate is a benevolent arch-angel; in another, a capricious Nemesis. A force so large can hardly be over-emphasized.

Reclamation projects and forest reserves are of national importance. But in the West almost every community is in the shadow of a national forest, and the dream of a prosperous future for many is based on reclamation. To the Easterner, afforestation and irrigation mean one thing; to the Westerner, another. It is the duty of the Western teacher to understand the Western standpoint and to apply a corrective, if one is needed. The opening up and sale of public lands will be a commonplace topic to a class including sons and daughters of homesteaders. We sometimes overlook, however, some of its most interesting phases. For example, on the relation of public land sales to financial crises, see a chart in Miss Coman's "Industrial History of the United States," page 287. Recall also the antagonism or indifference of the East to public land sales, and the relation between the homestead laws and immigration.

In Western classes the Panama Canal, our Far Eastern possessions, Asiatic immigration, and relations with Canada demand a new viewpoint and added emphasis. In discussing the canal, no teacher should explain merely its military and diplomatic aspects, but should call attention also to its influence on freight-rates, commerce, the growth of cities, settlement and western agriculture. The main thing here is not the searching of authorities, for authorities cannot be found, but rather the stimulation and widening of interest. Our Pacific possessions are Western outposts, and play their parts in the commercial and military control of our oceanic backyard. Asiatic immigration is a problem in international relations, labor and wages, citizenship, and social homogeneity. As to Canada, the East is concerned with the exchange of products; the West, with the intermixture and shifting of populations and economic competition.

The West has its own political temper. The Westerner is most typically American. It is out of the West that the broadening, democratizing "people's" movements have come. The student will see that the West has followed characteristic leaders, from Jackson, Harrison and Lincoln to Bryan, Roosevelt and LaFollette; and, when the fundamentals are understood, will find it easy to explain why the creditor East has repeatedly accused the debtor West of "loose" political tenets and "dangerous" economic theories. To-day, as in the time of Jackson, the frontier fears financial centralization. It still stands for democratizing tendencies: the initiative, referendum, recall, popular election of Senators, and the direct primary. The student should see that the present political alignment is no accident or sporadic phenomenon, but is as old as the frontier itself.

In securing this needed emphasis, teachers will use different methods. Western teachers need a good deal of the pioneer spirit and the pioneer ingenuity. The aim should be, not to burden the memory, but to clarify, vitalize and interpret.

New England Association

COLLECTION OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL.

In response to further requests for a statement of the work actually accomplished by the Committee on Historical Material during the first two years of its existence, the following report is submitted with the idea of showing only the main characteristics of that work, and especially the composition and usefulness of the collection of historical material.

The object of this collection is to afford an opportunity for the study, criticism and comparison of all aids to the teaching of history, economics and government. Included in it are historical, political and physical desk maps; chronological and geographical charts; atlases; wall pictures, and smaller pictures of all kinds, including prints, photographs, and postcards; casts; models to illustrate political and economic history, besides outline maps and atlases, historical note-books and the like.

In response to a suggestion that such material should be gathered together, a committee was appointed in January, 1910, with instructions to prepare such a collection, so far as possible, for exhibition at the spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association in the following April. The time was too short to secure a very large permanent exhibit, so a part of the collection of the Teachers' College, Columbia University, was secured, thereby making this first exhibition a very valuable and interesting one. Almost immediately it was decided to continue the work so that the Association would own a permanent, up-to-date, and as far as possible complete collection for study by its own members and by the teachers in New England. In July, 1910, the collection, minus the loans from the Teachers' College, but increased by other material was exhibited during the meeting of the National Education Association in Boston. A third special exhibition was given in the fall of 1910, when the New England History Teachers' Association met at Simmons College. In all the Association has expended in gathering and collating the collection somewhat over \$375, to say nothing of the contingent expenditures for the second edition of the catalogue and for the publication of special historical material by the Association.

At present the collection is located in the north wing of the Administration Building, The Fenway, Boston. It occupies the wall space and part of the floor space in six rooms, besides a part of the curator's room and the case containing the historical materials, casts, etc. One room has been devoted entirely to American History, two to Ancient History, one to Continental European History and still another, the largest of all, to English and Economic History, while the office of the curator is used to display African and Asian exhibits. The collection includes:

WALL MAPS—Historical 30; political, 120; physical and orographical, 20, and outline, 20.

DESK MAPS—Many sets, including outline maps and historical note-books.

CHARTS—Chronological on standards, 7; for wall use, 4; in book form, 3.

WALL PICTURES—About 200.

SMALL PICTURES—Many sets, including prints, photographs and postcards, as well as a series of over one hundred illustrating the development of land and marine transportation.

HISTORICAL MODELS—Illustrating Political and Economic History to the number of thirty or forty.

ATLASES—About 30.

GLOBES—Three.

In order to make this collection of most value to the teachers of history, a catalogue was issued in May, 1911, in pamphlet form, after having appeared in the April and May numbers of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, containing a list of the objects then on exhibition. It was soon seen that a second edition of this would be necessary, but this edition was delayed until May, 1912, when it was published by the Riverside Press of the Houghton Mifflin Company. The reception given the first edition was felt to warrant the issuing of the catalogue in more permanent form and in such a way as to be accessible to teachers throughout the country.

After this statement as to the gathering of this collection, the next point is as to its usefulness. It has not been possible to keep an accurate account of the number of visitors to the collection since many teachers come on Saturdays, when no member of the committee is habitually at Simmons College. At least two

(Continued on Page 160)

History in the Secondary School

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, EDITOR.

WORK OF THIS DEPARTMENT.

In the elementary school each teacher is usually responsible for nearly all the instruction and training which the school attempts to give the pupils of a particular grade or class. In the more-specialized work of the secondary school, each instructor deals with a much more limited field, from which alone he is expected to develop the maximum of educational possibility. Special opportunities and special dangers result. The high school teacher should have a thorough knowledge of his subject, and of the nature and needs of the pupils under his care. He should combine an enthusiasm for and belief in his special work that will lead him to demand for it the place to which its importance in the field of secondary education entitles it, with a sanity and breadth that keep him within reasonable bounds and restrain him from a blind and senseless rivalry against the field. All this, of course, applies to the teacher of history and government. His field is one of the richest in educational value, but presents problems of peculiar complexity and difficulty.

Every thoughtful and conscientious teacher is constantly studying these problems, and year by year more nearly approximating satisfactory plans and methods. No teacher is worth much who does not grow professionally. *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* wants to help these growing teachers of history. But it cannot help them effectively without their cooperation. The specialist scholars of the university have much to give us, but there are many practical problems of the daily routine, where the only really valuable aid must be drawn from the successful experience of high school teachers themselves. To attain the highest success, therefore, the *MAGAZINE* must have the assistance of teachers in the secondary schools all over the country.

The following list of subjects for discussion, it need hardly be said, is suggestive and not exhaustive. Criticisms and suggestions for additions are greatly desired. Practical articles, based on a knowledge of conditions in secondary schools are needed. If you are particularly interested in one of these subjects, or some other connected with the work, if you have given special thought or study to a topic or have made successful experiments toward the solution of some problem, will you not prepare an article and let us see whether it will help us to help other teachers of history?

Topics Suggested for Discussion in "The History Teacher's Magazine."

1. Aims and Values in the Teaching of History. (Not platitudes or vague theory, but a searching study from a practical point of view.)
2. What Results May Reasonably be Expected from the High-School Work in History? (Not the amount of subject matter, but what general results of history teaching can and should be secured? What is the function of the subject in the high school?)
3. Can History be Legitimately Used for Ethical Training or Influence? If so, to what extent, in what way, with what limitations?
4. Can History be Legitimately Used for Inculcating Patriotism? If so, to what extent, in what way, with what limitations?
5. Type Lessons or Accounts Showing How to Realize Various Aims of History Teaching. (E. g., Developing the ability to suspend judgment, or to hold tentative opinions; developing a taste for historical reading; interests in public affairs; reading of newspapers and magazines; relating the past to our own life and times; etc.)
6. Teaching Pupils How to Study. (Including the assignment of lessons, setting special problems, etc. Problem of the student who finds history his "hardest subject who" never could like history," etc.)
7. "Breaking-in" Beginners. (Suggestions for dealing with beginners who have just entered from the grammar school, or who are taking their first high-school history. How to secure the advantages of initial interest, liking, intelligent purpose, etc. Also the introduction to a new field of work.)
8. Home-made Illustrative Material. (Maps, charts, models, plans, pictures, etc., inexpensively prepared by pupils and teacher; should be based on successful experience.)
9. The Notebook. (Discussions, based on actual experience, of what may be done and how to do it.)
10. "Report" Work. (Under various conditions, large school and small, large library or small; "section" supply of desk books; finding suitable topics and references; methods of assignment; length and form; number required and voluntary work; credit given; question of time, etc.)
11. Use of Historical Fiction. (Extent of its value, limitations, dangers, examples of successful use; suggested lists—brief, adaptation and value tested.)
12. Use of a Syllabus in High-School Courses.
13. How to Use Pictures. (Not merely ways of collecting them or exhibiting them, but detailed, concrete, plans for using them fruitfully with the pupils. Should be based on successful experience.)
14. The Geographical Basis of History. (Relative emphasis; ways of using maps in text-books, and wall maps; outline maps—desk, wall, blackboard, etc.)
15. Supplementary Reading. (Lists of books combining acceptable standards of scholarship with lucidity and attractiveness of style that will commend them to young people who will not read the heavier "authorities"; principles to govern in selection of books; practical management of collateral reading; how to test the results.)
16. Securing a Vivid Sense of Reality Regarding Past Times. (Treatment not merely to refer to pictures and illustrative material. Must show exactly how to use such material for the purpose indicated; also what may be done with very little material. The problem of how to make great men and women actual individual, persons.)
17. Recommendations of the Committee of Five. (Specific topics, methods, and plans for putting them into effect.)
18. Courses of Study that are Unusual. (Out-of-the-ordinary plans, such as courses on nineteenth century Europe, or municipal civics. Discussions should be practical and based on successful experience.)
19. Accounts of Historical Studies made on the site of the occurrences. (Based on travel, whether in this country or abroad, where studies have been made on the ground and the subject can be presented with "local color," and with an understanding of high-school conditions.)
20. Use of Source Material. (To what extent, in what manner, with what specific purposes? Results secured. Question of time.)
21. Illustrative Source Material. (Not found in the ordinary collections for school use, but as well or better adapted to the capacity of secondary students; such material, of real value, might be re-published in leaflets.)
22. Industrial, Economic, and Social History. (Relative value and emphasis. Exposition of particular topics. Type lessons, or suggestions for treating particular topics in the classroom.)
23. Lesson Plans and Topical Discussions. (Expositions and suggestions for treating specific topics, subjects, or periods in the several fields; plans for actual classroom exercises; stenographic reports of actual lessons.)
24. Historical Anecdotes. (Authentic stories that are useful in the classroom for awakening interest, conveying definite impressions of the personality of historical characters, or throwing light on the life of other times.)
25. The Teaching of Local History. (Value; feasibility in secondary courses; methods; time devoted to work; results.)
26. Practical Civics. (Not expositions of governmental machinery, such as every text-book provides, but methods and devices for teaching government as a practical, current, reality, touching the life of every pupil.)
27. How to Make Reviews Profitable.
28. Methods of Testing the Results of Instruction in History (other than through ordinary "examinations.").
29. To What Extent and How May the History Department Make Use of the Work Done in Other Departments?

30. How Should the Secondary Work Differ from That in the Elementary School? (Beyond the obvious fact that the advanced work need not be quite so simple. Basing the study on American history, for example, exactly what ought to be the differences in substance, treatment, results expected, etc., in the text-book, the teacher's methods, and the mode of study?)
31. Personality of the Instructor in the Teaching of History.
32. Department Work in Large High Schools. (Department organization for three or more instructors; problems of administration and supervision; plans for "team work"; extent to which uniformity is desirable and feasible; department conferences, etc.)
33. Recent Tendencies in the Writing of Text-books.
34. Studies of Recent French Text-books.

A Proposed Series of Syllabi

TO COVER THE NEW COURSE IN MODERN HISTORY.

By ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D., AND DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D.

The Purposes of the Series.

In the past five or six years the more progressive students and teachers in the United States have come to realize that in teaching history in the secondary schools we have been laying too much emphasis upon the life and politics of peoples who have contributed but the smallest part to the institutions and customs with which our pupils are familiar to-day. Under the course of study recommended some fifteen years ago by the Committee of Seven, in many schools a full year is devoted to Ancient History and another year to the history of Europe from Charlemagne to the present day. In many schools, where only three years of history are given the history of Modern Europe is omitted entirely.

While there is no disposition on the part of progressive teachers to minimize the importance of the contributions of ancient peoples to modern civilization, it is nevertheless true that even under the best conditions—in schools where four years of history are given—the pupil is apt to get an exaggerated idea of the importance of Oriental, Greek, and Roman history and often learns but little of the forces which created the political, social and industrial conditions under which he is living to-day.

For several years a Committee of Five of the American Historical Association was at work devising a new course of study which would remedy this weakness and finally published its recommendations, in which it is proposed that, however the course of study be divided, one full year should be devoted to modern European history—the history of Europe since 1760. But this report, excellent as it is, gives the teacher no assistance in the problem of how this new course should be attacked. For teachers who continue to follow the old course there exist plenty of syllabi and text-books, atlases and note-books, topic references and lists of suggested readings. Those who desire to experiment with the new course must blaze the trail unaided by any expert advice.

It is our hope in the series of articles and outlines which we propose to publish in the pages of this journal from time to time that we shall be able to furnish the teacher with outlines and with other pedagogical aids which will enable him to make intelligent experiments with the new course in modern history suggested by the Committee of Five. We cannot hope that these outlines and suggestions will even approach perfection. Possibly our main purpose in publishing them is to arouse thought, criticism and comment. We hope that thus in the course of the next few years we may arrive at a commonly-accepted groundwork upon which all who desire to revise their instruction to meet the need of a more vital course of study, a course more nearly related to present-day political, social and economic conditions, can build. Our minds are completely open, and we trust that we shall find many critics willing to offer suggestions and advice.

The Two Dominant Factors in Modern Life.

In drawing up these outlines of modern European history, we shall approach our problem by analyzing the conditions which we find in Europe at the present time. Our single desire will be to make this history as concrete in its relation to the problems of present-day Europe as we can. We believe, in this connection, that every observer will agree with us that the two greatest forces in European politics to-day are (1) A TRIUMPHANT DEMOCRACY which is making its influence felt even in the most backward

countries like Russia and Turkey, and (2) A KEEN INTERNATIONAL COMMERCIAL RIVALRY among all the countries, with the industrial classes in each country controlling the social and economic life of the people. More and more as the years of the nineteenth century unfolded themselves the dominance of the crown and the aristocratic landholder, who had controlled the politics and the social life of Europe for centuries, was broken and the commercial and industrial classes succeeded in getting control of the government and in setting the standards of life throughout Europe. By the end of the nineteenth century the influence of the crown and of the landholder had become, in almost every country in Europe, a negative influence. Forms of government, legislation, and social and economic ideals were dictated by the merchant and the manufacturer; and to-day, in the beginning of the twentieth century, it appears to most thoughtful students of politics and society that the proletariat, the men who gain their livelihood by working in the fields, in the mines, and in the factories are finally coming into their own. Since this is so, we propose to trace these two great forces of modern life from their beginnings in the eighteenth century down to their triumph in the life of to-day.

Social and Political Conditions in the Eighteenth Century.

Our outlines will therefore begin with an analysis of the social, economic, and political conditions as they existed in Europe in the eighteenth century. We shall try to give to each of the forces in society—the crown, the aristocracy, the church, the middle class and the proletariat its share of attention. We shall try to analyze the forms of government and the political motives which swayed the government. We shall try to give sufficient headings for the study of the intellectual and moral life of the times. Politically and socially, England was probably the most advanced of the larger countries of Europe. France, contrary to the commonly-accepted notion, was probably second. Therefore, the student who understands conditions as they existed in these two countries—the two to which we shall devote most of our attention—will be able to appreciate how complete has been the revolution which has taken place in European society since that time.

Trade and Industry in the Eighteenth Century.

Next we shall attempt to analyze and outline the conditions of trade and industry which were common to Europe in the eighteenth century. Such an analysis will involve a brief preliminary statement of the methods of manufacture current in the principal industries in the various countries of Europe—the guild system and the system of domestic manufacture. Second, we must summarize the history of domestic trade conditions—the fairs and the processes of barter and exchange. From domestic trade we shall proceed to the conditions of international trade and the beginnings of the great European banking houses, the opening of the new sea routes to India and to the new continents in America and finally to the colonial enterprises of the five great trading countries of Europe—Spain, Portugal, Holland, England and France. Next we shall attempt to analyze the colonial policy of these nations and development of the so-called Mercantile System by which each nation by trade and navigation laws endeavored to reserve for itself all the benefits of its commerce and manufacture.

The Commercial Wars of the Eighteenth Century.

Every student of history knows that the wars of the middle ages were almost exclusively personal—wars between feudal vassal and feudal lord, efforts on the part of the vassal to extend his feudal dominion, efforts on the part of the lord to bring his vassals into more and more complete subjection. By the beginning of the sixteenth century these wars were practically over. The kings of England, France and Spain had triumphed. In Germany and in Italy each of the feudal vassals had carved out for himself a practically independent state. Then followed a century and a half of religious wars—a struggle between Catholics and Protestants which ended when the treaty of Westphalia was drawn up in 1648. For another half century the hostilities between the various countries of Europe were purely personal—efforts on the part of various sovereigns to increase their dominions and their control over affairs.

From the beginning of the eighteenth century to the treaty of Paris in 1763, however, the underlying motive in the wars of the European powers, especially of England, France, Holland and Spain, was the struggle for colonial empire. This era ended with the triumph of England and the commonly acknowledged fact that thenceforth hers was to be pre-eminently a maritime empire, while

the other European states could do no better than follow her lead. These conditions we shall endeavor to elucidate in the third of our series of outlines.

The Political and Social Revolution—1789-1815.

We shall next attempt to analyze the new political and social conditions which were created by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. Though the revolution began in France, though the storm center in the Napoleonic Wars was never far from Paris, the effects of these twenty-five years of struggle were felt in the remotest parts of Europe and extended even to the colonies of each of the important states. When the era was over a new political and social Europe had been created. New theories of government were in the ascendant, new ideals of life were coming to be accepted, and Modern Europe had come into existence. The emphasis in the study of this period should therefore be placed upon the political, social and intellectual changes which had been wrought during this generation rather than upon the dramatic incidents of the French Revolution and the "drum and trumpet" history of the Napoleonic wars as is so commonly the case.

The Industrial Revolution.

Coincident with the French Revolution which was the political and social expression of the change which was taking place in Europe came the Industrial Revolution, a movement of less dramatic interest, but probably far more important in its effect on modern European life. Indeed, according to Robertson ("England under the Hanoverians," p. 329), "The Industrial Revolution is the true prologue to the European Upheaval." In 1713 England was already a nation of shopkeepers, but as yet the national economy was that of a *trading* not a *manufacturing* community. By 1815, England had become a manufacturing state, with large scale production in special districts, capitalistic enterprises were common mechanical inventions had multiplied rapidly and scientific utilization of raw materials was the rule. Population had already redistributed itself, and all the good and evil results of a capitalistic society were already clearly defined. In the other countries of Europe this revolution followed more slowly, but before another generation had passed all the more progressive parts of Europe had been transformed. In the analysis of this revolution we shall lay special stress upon such features as (1) the number and variety of inventions and the substitution of mechanical power for the human hand, (2) the increase of population coincident with the steady decline of the agricultural interests in the state, (3) the transition of industry from the Domestic System to the Factory System—organized industry on a large scale, (4) the development of capitalistic control, (5) the improvement in the means of transportation, and (6) the rapid development of a complicated system of credit and exchange. These changes are especially noticeable in the textile trades, in mining, in the iron and steel industries, but they extend ultimately to almost every other form of manufacture. "Henceforth," as Robertson says, "the nation that can make the best tools and be trained how to use them to their utmost capacity will become the workers and the workshop of the world."

The Period of Reaction.

Following the Congress of Vienna in 1815, comes a period of apparent reaction. This era is marked by an effort on the part of those who still remembered the conditions which existed before 1789 to re-establish the "Old Régime." But even a superficial study of European history between 1815 and 1848 will reveal that this effort was ineffective and hopeless. Political advancement was temporarily checked, the violence and disorder of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars offered an excuse for refusing to give to the people the full political fruits of their victory, but the check was only temporary. While reactionary statesmen like Metternich were endeavoring to make the world stand still, the middle classes in England, France, Germany and Austria were steadily developing the industrial resources of these countries; economists and thinkers were developing the theories of "Laissez Faire" and of the right of the people to a constitutional form of government.

Revolution of 1848; Its Political and Economic Results.

In 1848 the storm finally broke. The Revolution of 1848 again should be studied from a dual point of view. It secured for many of the people of Europe a constitutional form of government and it forced the powers in control to recognize that there existed still another class of society whose interests must be considered—the

laborer, upon whom the very structure of society is built. From 1848 to 1875 or 1880 the theories of the revolutionists were slowly being put into practice. This is the period of the final adoption of modern constitutions and the development of the modern state in England, in France, in Germany, in Austria and in Italy. By 1880 every important European country had taken on the shape in which it exists to-day. Besides this, under every government the agitation in favor of workingmen's rights is increasing; the franchise is extended; labor unions are recognized as legal; factory legislation and workingmen's compensation and pension acts are being passed; and the propaganda of the socialists is becoming more and more distinct.

The Triumph of Democracy—The Growth of Industrialism.

Since 1880, that is in the last generation, the problems of government have receded further and further into the background. The right of the people to a share in the government is universally recognized, forms of government and methods of legislation are largely fixed. What little agitation still goes on in relation to this subject is concerned largely with details rather than with general principles. The vital problems of this last generation have been questions of forms of industrial organization and questions of international and colonial trade. Less than a generation ago we were all primarily interested in the study of the development of constitutional government in Europe and the growth of the new nationalism in Germany, in Austria and in Italy. We could not then see, for example, that far more important than the unification of Germany under one government was to be the industrial result of the Franco-Prussian war. To-day the world is awake to the changes which have resulted in the last twenty-five years, and we shall therefore end our analyses by a study of the developments in labor legislation, in industrial organization, of the growing influence of the socialist party, of tariff legislation, of international trade agreements, the race for new markets and the creation of new colonial areas in Africa, in Asia and in the Pacific islands by the various European states.

With all these elements clearly outlined, the student should be able to interpret current events and present tendencies in European politics, should be able to read intelligently magazine articles and newspaper reports of European affairs as they appear from day to day.

Examination Questions in History

The Following are the Papers in History set for the June, 1912, Examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board.

HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer two questions.)

1. Describe the government and the life of the people in the Mycenaean age.
2. By what steps was the ancient monarchy of Athens transformed into a democracy?
3. Give a full description (with date) of the battle of Marathon. What ancient Greek historian gives an account of the battle?

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

4. Describe the construction of a Greek temple and illustrate by a description of some particular temple. Add, if possible, a plan or sketch to make your description clearer.
5. Name two Greek sculptors, two Greek dramatists, and two Greek historians, with a work by each. Show the importance of these men for us.

GROUP III. (Answer one question.)

6. How did a Roman of the upper classes at the time of Cicero spend his day? In what books outside your text-book would you look for information on this topic?
7. Describe the making of a Roman road and give the names and routes of at least two. In what ways were Roman roads important. In what books outside your text-book would you look for information on this topic?

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

8. Describe the kinds of dependent states over which Rome ruled at the end of the third Punic War.
9. Give an outline of at least three of the legends of early Rome and show how each of two "illustrates the character and ideals of the Romans and their beliefs concerning Rome's past."

10. In the struggles which took place between Marius and Sulla, Caesar and Pompey, and Octavius and Antony, what party and what principles did each represent; and when did the struggle end in each case?

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

11. Compare the methods of organizing an empire employed by the Assyrians and by Alexander.
12. Give a brief account of the Visigoths.

GROUP VI. (Answer one question.)

13. On map 41a indicate those states of Greece which successively gained the hegemony, writing in the approximate date when each state held the leadership.
14. What did Rome do with three of the remnants of Alexander's empire? Draw a map to illustrate your narrative.

HISTORY B—MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Give a brief account of the rise and spread of Mohammedanism to the battle of Tours. Draw a map and indicate the location of Tours. What contemporary source would give an account of the Mohammedan religion?
2. Explain and make clear by a narration of events what was the political importance of the conversion of the Franks to Latin Christianity?

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. In what countries of Europe did the Northmen settle and what became of them in their new abodes?
4. What were the medieval notions of "interest" and a "just price," and what influence did each have upon commerce?
5. Describe the position of the De'Medici family in Florence in the fifteenth century and explain their part in the Revival of Learning.

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

6. Describe briefly Calvin's reforms in Geneva and account for his influence upon Protestantism.
7. Narrate the events suggested by the following terms and show what connection they had with one another; Massacre of St. Bartholomew, Edict of Nantes, Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Give a date for each, or indicate the time as definitely as you can.
8. Give an account of the life and works of Loyola.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. Give a brief account of the actual conditions in France before the Revolution which led to the demand for "Liberty, equality, and fraternity."
10. Describe the services of Cavour and Victor Emmanuel in the unification of Italy.
11. Describe the terms and indicate the importance of the Treaty of Berlin, 1878.

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. Indicate on map 60 two important battlefields (a) in the Hundred Years' War; (b) in the Thirty Years' War; (c) in the Seven Years' War. In your answer-book state briefly what influence each battle had on the outcome of the war.
13. On map 60 indicate as accurately as possible the extent of the empire of Charlemagne and also the modern countries into which that empire has been divided.

HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer one question.)

1. Describe the conquest of Britain by the Angles and Saxons. Give dates, or indicate the time as definitely as you can.
2. (a) How did Christianity come to be established in Britain? (b) What was the Council of Whitby, what was its importance, and when was it held?

GROUP II. (Answer two questions.)

3. Describe Alfred's work for England.
4. Give a concise account of an English manor before 1400.
5. What were the following and what part did each play in medieval life: fairs, merchant guilds, craft guilds, merchant adventurers, villeins.

GROUP III. (Answer two questions.)

6. Describe the life, character and death of Sir Thomas More. Give the title of a book written by him and indicate concisely the nature of the book.

7. Show by citing specific cases what the relation of Parliament was to the crown under the Tudors, and explain why it was natural that the Stuarts should take the attitude toward Parliament which they did.

8. State the most important consequences of the Revolution of 1688.

GROUP IV. (Answer two questions.)

9. Why did England take part in the war of the Spanish Succession, and what were the results of the war so far as England was concerned?
10. Describe the reforms associated with the names of Cobden, Wilberforce, Gladstone.
11. What do you understand by the term the "Industrial Revolution," and in what way is it connected with three of the following: "child labor," "squalid tenements," "trade unions," "free trade"?

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. Indicate on map 63 as accurately as possible England's two most important possessions in Africa. In your answer-book tell briefly how she came into possession of them.
13. On map 43 indicate as accurately as possible two important commercial centers in England, two in Ireland, and two in Scotland, which became important in consequence of the Industrial Revolution; two university centers in England.

HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY.

GROUP I. (Answer two questions.)

1. In what ways was English colonial policy in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries better than that of France?
2. Describe the principles of the Friends or Quakers, the founding of Pennsylvania, and its government to 1760.
3. What were the motives actuating the founders of four of the following colonies: Plymouth, Georgia, Maryland, Jamestown, New Netherland.

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

4. Give an account of Genet's mission and of the foreign policy of Washington's second administration.
5. From what class in society did the Loyalists mainly come, why were they opposed to the Revolution, how were they treated, and what became of them?

GROUP III. (Answer three questions.)

6. Compare briefly the economic conditions of the North and the South at the opening of the Civil War.
7. Under what circumstances and when was the state of California admitted into the Union?
8. Compare the policies of the following presidents in making appointments to office. Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Cleveland.
9. (a) State the author and title of any book or books which you have used in addition to your text-book in connection any one of the following topics:
 - (1) The life of an Englishman connected with American history.
 - (2) A battle or campaign of the American Revolution.
 - (3) A battle or campaign of the Civil War.
 - (4) Slavery.
 - (5) The Tariff.
 - (6) Social life in one of the Colonies.
 (b) Discuss the topic you have chosen, showing the results of your outside reading.

GROUP IV. (Answer one question.)

10. Compare the methods which the United States has employed (a) for the government of territory which has been contiguous and (b) for that which has been separated from her by the seas, and account for the differences.
11. Why has the Senate become a much more powerful body than the House of Representatives, and in what sense may it be said to have "usurped powers belonging to the House and the President"?

GROUP V. (Answer one question.)

12. On map 30 indicate as accurately as possible the possessions which the United States owns outside the limits of the states. In your answer-book state briefly the circumstances by which she came into control of each of these possessions.
13. On map 31 indicate approximately the areas west of the Allegheny Mountains which were settled between 1783 and 1803, and between 1803 and 1820. In your answer book account for the rapidity with which the later portions were settled.

Normal and Elementary School Department

EDITED BY CARL E. PRAY, OF THE MILWAUKEE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

How Is the Teacher of Elementary History Prepared?

BY SARAH A. DYNES, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, N. J.

The function of the department of history in preparing normal students to teach in the grades may be briefly stated thus:

1. To make clear the distinction between efficient teaching and a performance called teaching which wastes the pupil's energy, retards his progress and perverts his conception of what history really is.
2. To demonstrate how to study history intelligently and how to teach it.
3. To make the would-be teacher conscious of the mental operations he performs in studying history, to induce him to try to discover how others learn history, and to stimulate him to undertake to guide the mental operations of children who are studying history.
4. To make clear the nature and purpose of courses of study in history and how the various branches of the school curriculum are related.
5. To stimulate the would-be teacher to continue to grow in knowledge of subject matter and in power to understand children.

A man may cross a bridge daily without knowing very much about the laws of gravitation or the laws of mechanics, but the person who undertakes to *build* a bridge must observe the conditions and principles involved in bridge making or he will fail to make a safe bridge. In a similar manner a person may do vigorous thinking without knowing that he is thinking according to psychological laws, but if he enters the field of teaching and has a definite end in view—to secure healthy, mental progress and to avoid arrest and waste—he is *likely* to fail as a director of mental activity unless the *conditions involved in the process* are known to him. Consequently a knowledge of both subject matter and educational psychology will help him to gain control of the conditions under which he is to work.

The would-be teacher who is preparing to teach history must know the difference between good and bad teaching. To label the one as good and the other as bad is not sufficient. Each must be analyzed carefully to determine why the one is good and the other bad. The most glaring defects are easily found and are well stated in the following descriptions: "The teacher assigns a fixed number of pages in the text-book to be memorized; pupils repeat the text in recitation; they are examined in the text-book at the close of a certain number of weeks; the subject is then dropped, and usually most willingly. The result is that pupils pass from these schools by the hundred with a brief mental encumbrance of names, dates, and events—mere baggage. In other schools no text-book is used. The teacher talks and pupils take notes. The teacher is not a special student of history, but he can talk text-book on a small scale. The notes of the pupils are swept into a table to be memorized. The recitation is the story after the teacher, and with unique variations by the pupil. The text-book abbreviates the larger work; the teacher abbreviates the text-book; the pupil abbreviates the teacher. The results are a meager amount of disconnected facts and a certain uncertainty in the mind of the pupil which leaves him conscious of his own ignorance. Instruction in history conducted in either of these ways is time wasted, energy wasted, history perverted and intelligent elementary knowledge of the subject stifled."

To-day the best teachers of history in the lower grades create an atmosphere for the reception of what is to be taught. They are constantly stimulating the pupils to observe and to make mental pictures. They aim to give the pupil a vivid impression of concrete objective reality. Such teachers make an opportunity for each child to see, to touch and to handle the things talked about whenever it is possible and then plan their work so as to compel the pupils to use what they already know in new combinations. Such teachers realize that elementary work in history must be picture-making. Words that are not filled with meaning or significance comprehensible to a child symbolize nothing to him although the same words may be filled with rich content for his teacher who has had wider experience. When graphic illustration is used to help out verbal expression, the intelligent teacher knows from experience that it is the pupil's needs which must determine the character of the illustration used. Her ex-

perience has also taught her that illustrations which stimulate one pupil may only confuse another. Consequently she is ever on a voyage of exploration to discover what *experiences* the pupils have had in school and out of school that may throw light upon the best way of introducing new material to them so as to stimulate their realizing imagination. She uses pictures and other illustrative material and by means of construction work gives the pupil an opportunity to show what conception he has formed of the wigwam, or the bow, or the boat or the home of other days.

Our best history teachers fully realize that if pupils are to reproduce in their mental processes the pageants, the explorations, the amusements, the conveyances of a by-gone age, the senses and the memory must first be trained to furnish the necessary material out of which the imagination can construct the pictures. No normal child is wholly unimaginative, but some forms of imagination are infinitely richer than others. Nothing worth while in history can be done by a pupil unless he has the *concrete imagery* that the language of teacher or the book or the classmate ought to suggest. The past can never be reconstructed by a person who has mere *verbal imagination*. Consequently the best teachers utilize gesture, pantomime and dramatization to secure imagery and to stimulate expression. Experience has taught such teachers to make appeals to the child's mind by as many avenues as possible—eyes, ears, hands and vocal organs.

The story is used to enlarge the child's experience by enlisting his sympathy. Through the story he becomes acquainted with children of other lands and other times. It also increases his comprehension of his own former experiences and stimulates him to observe the life about him. The informal conversational lessons give the children an opportunity to question about points that are not clear. Only through imagination combined with sympathy can any student of history hope to appreciate the point of view or to enter into the feelings or to understand the motives and character of any important historical personage. Consequently the sympathetic imagination ought to be cultivated in children.

On the other hand, most of the poor teaching of history in the lower grades is due to the teacher's failure to grasp the significance of her task. Some inexperienced teachers and nearly all poor teachers make the mistake of *TELLING* the pupils too much. To the minds of such teachers mere verbal memory, "*word-getting*," passes for information. They do not understand why it is necessary to stimulate curiosity, observation and imagination. Other poor teachers are endeavoring to carry out precepts that are sound, but they have so little skill in detecting whether the children are listless or alert that they confuse the children by too many illustrations and diagrams which are not understood. Still others lack the sympathy and tact necessary to understand child-nature. They lack the *insight* necessary to discover the *real causes* of a child's actions or behavior. They cannot discern the various combinations of different characteristics, and are so utterly blind where child-nature is concerned that they blunder constantly in judging the pupil's conduct. For instance, when a child makes a statement which to the initiated shows that he still has difficulty in distinguishing between the objective and subjective worlds of his experience the teacher accuses him of telling a falsehood. A child whose sense of private ownership in property is undeveloped the teacher charges with theft and is unnecessarily alarmed about his future. There is still another type of teacher who fails to get near to children and so is incapable of directing their mental processes. She approaches them with a pompous tread, a cold, searching eye and a "world-sufficient-unto-itself" air. She inspires either hatred or fear, but lacks the imagination to see how her conduct affects the pupils. Not unless such a person were born again and the gods were kind to her could she become fit to teach history to children. The successful teacher of little children knows how to interpret children's play as well as their serious moods, their dreams and aspirations, their faults and their dangers. She can give indirect suggestion and put a child at ease and can tell stories well. She sees clearly, feels keenly and tells a tale with zest. Such teachers bridge the gap between the adult and the child, and are richly rewarded by additional joy in living as well as by greatly increased power in enabling little children

to understand themselves and to interpret the world about them. They have a just comprehension of the conditions surrounding child life as well as of the fundamental principles upon which all good teaching must be based.

The chief purpose of the foregoing discussion is to awaken interest and stimulate curiosity as to how history should be studied and how it should be taught. The normal students are then required to study a short period of American history in order to demonstrate by a little practical experience how valuable it is to examine even the text-book with care. They learn for what class of students the book was intended, the purpose of the author in writing it and the character of his preparation for such a task. They make note of how much outside reading is necessary to make the statements of the text-book intelligible to the members of the normal class. Their attention is called to the character and amount of additional reading suggested by the author. They are requested to note how much additional illustration and elucidation must be given by the teacher or certain members of the class before all members of the class gain clear notions of all passages. They are also requested to note to what extent geographical knowledge is essential to an adequate comprehension of some of the facts. They note the use made of contemporary material and the cautions given for its selection. The reports on outside reading give the members of the class an opportunity to compare three or four good secondary historians in their treatment of the period under discussion as to the character of facts selected, the manner of grouping and the placing of emphasis. The members of the class also learn from experience what biographies add interest to the study and make the whole period seem more real. They learn that certain passages of literature make some of the impressions of events and problems more vivid and hence more permanent. They also get considerable practice in using printed bibliographies, card catalogues, indexes, tables of contents and a knowledge of the history material on that period contained in three libraries—the library of the State Normal School, the Free Public Library of the City of Trenton and the State Reference Library in the State House.

A normal student, after spending several weeks in study of this character on a short period with which he supposed he was quite familiar, begins to understand why a teacher of history for any given period needs a more extensive knowledge of that period than is to be found in a single text-book or in two or three different text-books plus a few accounts taken from encyclopaedias. He is in a better frame of mind now to anticipate some of the difficulties that seventh- and eighth-grade pupils will encounter in using text-books. Because his work is done with twenty-five or thirty classmates each student has an opportunity to see different points of view of classmates and their different ways of arriving at the same conclusions. He will note different degrees of aptitude and skill in the use of the tools of history and historic material. One student is quick to glean just what an author says, but shows little power in analyzing it or recognizing its significance. Some students are slow to detect a bias in an author even when warned that it is there. Others can discern a bias or test for the truth of an assertion without assistance from the teacher. Some show little power to summarize their knowledge. Others can summarize or outline a chapter readily, but show only a meager amount of skill in giving a word picture of a scene or situation. Some students show little skill in the use of a dictionary or an encyclopaedia or an atlas or a map of any kind. Not infrequently a student can give the substance of a paragraph but is unable to tell how the author stated it. If he reads three accounts, different renderings of the same event, he cannot keep them separate. All the students have gained some knowledge of the value of historic manuals and the value of appeals to the eye and hand, as well as the ear and the voice in history study.

The length of time devoted to such study and the amount of ground covered vary from class to class. It is the student's attitude of mind rather than his amount of knowledge which determines when the class will take up the more strictly pedagogical part of their training. In the preceding study the normal student has had his attention centered upon how students of his own age study history. His attention is now directed to the child and the nature of his equipment. His knowledge of psychology is reviewed for the purpose of determining what mental trait is most predominant in the early years of school life, in the grammar grades and in the high school. The function which the imagination plays in learning history in the primary grades, in the grammar grades and in the high school is abundantly illustrated. Its func-

tion in the teaching of history and in the writing of history are explained. The elementary teacher has for one of her problems to find material by means of which the pupil's imagination may be enriched and a foundation laid for the future study of history. She endeavors to widen his horizon, enlarge his sympathies, and thus prevent the possibility of vulgarity and narrowness later in life. Such work is not, strictly speaking, history at all, but it has great value for the later stages of the work. It is by means of the imagination that one can magnify, diminish, qualify and combine experiences so as to make them serve for purposes entirely new. One needs accurate experiment, sense impression, memory and observation for the imagination to work upon. The imagination thus stimulated when controlled by *experience* and *reflection* enables one to reconstruct the past. It enables one to put himself in another's place and thus learn charity or reverence. The normal student is led to see that no other subject in the elementary school offers a greater wealth of possible material for stimulating the imagination of the learner. When the pupil of the upper grades or the student in the high school begins to reflect, to trace relations, to compare, to contrast, to pass judgment the value of each mental process will depend largely upon the accuracy with which his imagination can revive the pictured scene. Each person's type of mind is largely determined by the character of the images which predominate. Since the eye can see in any object or social group only what the eye brings the power of seeing, the normal student can readily realize the necessity of encouraging children in the earlier years of school life to observe the simple conspicuous elements in the society about them in order to enable them to picture other societies. Making due allowance for hereditary aptitude, that kind of mental imagery will predominate which is before the mind most frequently. The cultivation of a given sense develops the corresponding form of imagination. The motor sense should receive more emphasis than it has in the past. It has usually been unduly neglected. An elementary teacher must never lose sight of the fact that to *vivify* every fact or event taught the pupil will be a great saving of time later. To widen and vivify his imagination is to enrich life for him.

The normal student is next led to see how the history taught in one grade prepares for the next. The value of each phase of history as a means to excite and direct mental power is emphasized. Courses of study are examined to see what experts think ought to be selected. The attention of the student is called to the necessity of viewing history in longitudinal sections. Each student is required to consider the course of study as a scheme of work in which the subject matter unfolds gradually year by year and thus corresponds to the growth of mind itself. The normal student gains this knowledge partly through oral instruction, partly through reading supplemented by personal observation in the grades for verification. No person can teach well unless he is an earnest student of mind-activity, as well as subject matters. No normal student can interpret intelligently the devices which he has seen used unless he knows how and why they work. Not until the normal student has gained considerable insight into the mental characteristics of children in the various grades and can see the possibilities of history used as a means to stimulate the child's mental activity, and recognizes the real nature of the teaching process is he prepared to read with intelligence works discussing the educational value of history or books on methods in history. Attention is called to the fact that most of the values claimed for history do not apply to history that is taught in either the elementary school or the high school. The educational values that may be derived from history as a school study are never gained unless the subject is well taught.

Side by side with the observation of children in the class rooms and on the playground, the normal students are receiving instruction upon how to use illustrative material effectively, how to conduct conversational lessons that will induce correct habits of mind, how to select stories suitable to a given class and how to tell a story well. They discuss also the use and abuse of the text-book in grammar grades, the value of supplementary reading, the value of careful assignments, the necessity for drills and reviews and summaries, the value of dramatization and pageants. The effective use of the recitation period in the seventh and eighth grades and the teacher's opportunity to elucidate, amplify and supplement the text as well as to test and to guide the work of the pupils are discussed. The normal students are familiar with the character of text-books used in the grades in which they observe and they are now given an opportunity to examine other history material suitable for young children. Collections of biographical tales, stories of

inventions, and of industries, and supplementary readers, and textbooks. At least one written report is required of each student. The object of which is to test their ability to find material suitable for a grade teacher's use and material suited to children's use. They are requested to look up the teacher's material first. Definite books are assigned and topics are selected with care. Most of the written reports are in outline form sufficiently full to convince the teacher that the student has really complied with the requirement. It will not be necessary to go into further detail as to the character and purpose of this work as those specially interested can find in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for November, 1910, pp. 53 to 56, a full account of the teacher's preparation for introducing Daniel Boone to pupils in the Fifth Grade. Another article in the same magazine for February, 1911, pp. 134 and 135 discusses "Interpretation a Function of the History Teacher." Both articles were contributed by me and convey some idea of the spirit in which I feel the work ought to be done.

Normal students are encouraged to widen their experience of children in all possible ways. One's first-hand experience with children on the playground and in the class room will vitalize what is read about them, will increase one's sensitiveness to their expressive acts, will enable one to learn much from every child with whom it is his privilege to live and consequently he will be of greater service to children in general. A second step in gaining a wider experience of children is to look at them through the eyes of a person who is gifted in interpreting child nature. This gives the normal student an opportunity to compare his own insight with that of another. The possible number of children of different types that one may know will be greatly increased by this means. To my mind one of the cleverest stories about children written in the last twenty years is "Emmy Lou, Her Book and Heart," by George Madden Martin [McClure Phillips & Co., New York, 1902]. It is especially suggestive to a history teacher who examines it for the sake of seeing how Emmy Lou gets into difficulty with historic phraseology and by what slow stages she finally gains the experience necessary to put content into the terms. At the age of eleven she is trying to understand the meaning of "social sets," "election," "a poll," "a heretic," "democratic institutions," "a republican," "a democrat" and "family tree." To all of these terms she is introduced through conversations with children of her own age or with her Uncle Charlie. The story is told in a charming manner and throws much light on the development of the historic sense in a child who is quite unfortunate in both home and school. This is only one out of scores of books now on the market which help inexperienced teachers to gain greater insight into the inner life of boys and girls and reveal the nature of the difficulties encountered in school work in the grades.

Any adequate preparation of a teacher of history includes practical work in teaching classes under guidance in order to give the would-be teacher a better hold upon the educational significance of the subject matter he is acquiring, and, at the same time, to vitalize and illuminate his theories of method. It aims to make him a thoughtful, alert student of the teaching process rather than to help him to get immediate proficiency. Intelligent supervisors know that it is possible to gain what seems to be immediate skill at the cost of power to go on growing. A first condition of mental growth in a learner is to give ATTENTION without reserve or qualification to the subject in hand. The normal student who gains the power to recognize the signs of its presence or absence and knows how to initiate and maintain such attention and how to test it is in a position to discriminate the genuine from the sham and has the capacity to further the one and discourage the other. Such power is a mark of psychological maturity and is acquired slowly. Such a student can criticize his own teaching because he has an aim in view and an intelligent comprehension of some means by which his purpose may be furthered. He can tell how and why certain devices work because he has become sensitive to the interaction of mind upon mind and so is prevented from becoming a slave to rule and device. He will become instead an intelligent critic as to their proper use and adaptation. He may now be trusted to read treatises on methods in history and to take the responsibility of class instruction. He has been led to see how the power he gains in narration, description, and exposition in the department of English increases his skill in teaching history. In a similar manner he recognizes the value of his study of manual arts, geography, et cetera, in relation to the study and the teaching of history. His participation in student activities adds to his self-confidence and initiative and induces him to study social groups.

The above description of work is intended to convey in a general way the spirit in which the course in methods in history is conducted, and its relation to other courses in the school. This is the *only course in history that is required* of all students who graduate from the Normal School. The time devoted to it is nineteen weeks, five recitations per week. *Elective courses* are offered for those who wish to gain greater proficiency in subject-matter. Each of these courses consists of five recitations per week for nineteen weeks. The aim is to stimulate the historical imagination, to train the historic judgment and to inculcate historic insight. The required reading consists of biographies, standard histories and collections of source material in English or in English translations. The minimum requirement of outside reading averages about 75 pages per week, but the abler students always read more. In the recitation period there are no set or formal lectures. The time is devoted to clearing up difficulties, or in making comments upon reports given in class. Not infrequently the reinforcing of significant points or the elucidation of some point by a new author may consume the whole time of a recitation period. The tests include oral and written reports on "search topics," the construction of outlines, maps, bibliographies, point by point comparisons and occasional written lessons to test daily preparation. For the past twelve years four different elective courses have been offered each year. Last year five were offered. The electives include:

1. A course in Medieval History from 800 A.D. to the close of the thirteenth century.
 2. A course on the Renaissance and the Protestant Revolt.
 3. A course in English History during the reigns of the Tudors and Stuarts.
 4. A course on the French Revolution.
 5. A course in European History from 1815 to 1870.
 6. A course in English History in the nineteenth century.
 7. A course in Contemporary European History since 1870 which emphasizes the expansion of Europe into Africa and Asia.
 8. An advanced course in American History.
 9. The Industrial and Social History of England and America since the middle of the eighteenth century.
- [This course continues throughout the school year 38 weeks 5 recitations per week, and was given for the first time in 1910 and 1911.]

A large percentage of the students have always *elected courses in history*. No student upon graduation has a mastery of the subject-matter and they are all sufficiently intelligent to be aware of the fact, but they have acquired the habit of studying history in an intelligent way and most of them have both the ability and the inclination to continue to study it. All of them realize that no pupil can interpret history except in the light of his own experience, and consequently understand the necessity of trying to look at subject-matter arranged for any grade from the standpoint of the pupils to be taught and appreciate the value of knowing their interests when trying to promote genuine mental growth. Naturally they lack *skill* in selecting material and in adapting it as well as in the mechanics of class management. Only an abundance of practice can make one proficient in these directions. We fondly hope that some of them may in due time gain that sympathetic insight into both subject-matter and child-nature that characterize the inspiring and artistic teacher and that none of them will be guilty of mere slavish imitation.

The first Norman-American Convention was held at Concordia College, Moorehead, Minn., and the Agricultural College at Fargo, N. D., on July 11-15. The exercises were conducted in both the English and Norwegian languages. The purpose of the convention was to promote an interest in the history of North America and Northern Europe and in the literature, music, art and archaeology of the northern races. The publication of the proceedings and of the formation of a library, the encouraging of the translation and publication of the original documents and the exhibition of northern antiquities, are among the aims of the convention. The occasion of the calling of the convention was the gift of a replica of the statue of Rollo in the city of Rouen, presented by the citizens of that city to the Norman races in America. The following constitute the officers of the convention: Dr. Herman Fjelde, Abercrombie, N. D., president; Professor J. A. Aasgaard, Moorehead, Minn., vice-president; William J. Trimble, Fargo, N. D., vice-president; Mr. Peter Thoresen Reite, Moorehead, Minn., secretary.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

Dr. John Haynes has been promoted from the position of master in the Dorchester High School, Boston, Mass., to the position of Master, Head of the Department of History, in the Hyde Park High School of the same city.

At the annual meeting of the Maryland Association the following officers were elected: Mr. Percy L. Kaye, president; Dr. Ralph Magoffin, vice-president; Miss Ella V. Ricker, secretary.

"Illiteracy in Colonial Days" is a subject discussed in a historical bulletin of the Bureau of Education, the data having been gathered by an examination of signatures of legal and other documents of other days for the purpose of ascertaining the number of signers who used their marks. While the data is not at all conclusive, Massachusetts occupied the most advanced educational position in the seventeenth century, while Virginia brings up the rear. The Dutch of New York and the Germans of Pennsylvania occupied intermediate positions. These are all the colonies for which data has been compiled.

Mr. John R. Sutton, of the Oakland High School, has just finished the manuscript of a manual on the Government of California. The work is designed for the use of voters as well as high school and college students. It is expected that it will appear during the summer.

Scottish Historical Association.

The secretary of the recently-formed Scottish Historical Association is Mr. W. A. Ross, the Royal High School, Edinburgh. A branch of the association was formed for Edinburgh and the south-east of Scotland, and already contains over one hundred and thirty members. The west of Scotland Branch has also been formed.

"History": a Quarterly.

The second number of this new quarterly magazine, April-June, 1912, contains as leading articles: "How Geography Has Controlled History," by J. Fairgrieve; "Monasteries and Monastic Life in the Middle Ages," by Everard L. Guilford; "The Teaching of European History in American Universities," by H. F. B. Wheeler; "The Dance Historically Reviewed," by N. H. J. Westlake; "The Seven Deadly Sins of Historical Teaching," by Hilda Johnstone, and "The Viking Age," by Professor Allen Marver. The business address of the magazine is 44 Fleet Street, London, E.C.

Exchange Professors with France.

Notice has been received that the Ministry of Public Instruction of the French Government has selected Professor George Grafton Wilson, of Harvard University, as exchange professor with France for 1912-13. His term of service will be spent at the University of Paris.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Leaflet No. 30, containing a report of the proceedings of the sixth annual meeting of the English Historical Association, appeared in June. Professor Ramsay Muir's paper on "The Relations of History and Geography" appeared in "History," a quarterly magazine for the student and the expert, Vol. I, No. 1, pp. 41-54. A summary of the discussion on the attitude of the teacher towards controversial questions of the present day is given in the leaflet.

THE NEBRASKA ASSOCIATION.

The Nebraska History Teachers' Association held its spring meeting at Omaha, May 3d and 4th. On the afternoon of May 3d, through the courtesy of the Omaha Teachers' Lecture Course, the association listened to an inspiring and helpful lecture by Dr. A. B. Hart. In the evening, through the courtesy of the Harvard Club of Nebraska, the members of the association participated in a dinner given in honor of Dr. Hart in the Paxton Hotel parlors, and afterwards listened to a delightful address by him on "Present Conditions in China."

The association assembled Saturday morning at the High School building. The first part of the program was a paper by Miss Eugene Mackin, of the Omaha High School, on "Material for Teaching Greek History." Miss Mackin had assembled the finest

collection of the sort ever seen in Nebraska. The walls of the large room were literally covered with pictures of every sort known to the teaching profession that bear on this subject. There were many stacks of these besides in various parts of the room. A very extensive list of maps and charts had been loaned by various publishing houses. All the latest and best books on Greek history were collected in one part of the room. There were also models and specimens of statuary and collections of old Greek coins and other remains from Greek life. Finally Miss Mackin ran a fine collection of slides through the lantern. Her purpose was to call attention to the various kinds of material and indicate their relative value in teaching the subject. She also spoke of their cost and where they might be obtained. Opportunity was given for the members to pass around and examine all the material at closer range. This one part of the program was worth the whole time and expense of the meeting.

At noon, through the courtesy of the Commercial Club of Omaha, the members took luncheon together at the Delft Tea Room. This turned out to be a very delightful affair.

The chief event of the afternoon session was a "model recitation in Greek History, based on source material." A class of about twenty-five was supplied by the Omaha High School, and Dr. Fling, of Nebraska University, conducted the recitation. The subject of the lesson was the Greek religion of the Homeric age. As Dr. Fling proceeded with the recitation he lectured to the association, explaining the work and indicating what might be done in the high school and how it ought to be done.

Printed "instructions for the lesson" were distributed. On these "instructions" were found.

1. "Subject of the lesson," indicating what and where in definite terms.
2. "Preparation of the lesson," stating exactly what was to be done, analyzed into the various steps to be taken.
3. "Example," in which the answer to one question was carried through the various processes of "collecting material," "interpreting the material," "arranging the interpretations in logical order," and finally "combining the logical arrangement into sentences."

At the business meeting a new constitution was adopted. In order to give stability and continuity to the association, the secretary is to be elected for a five-year term, and the vice-president is to become each year the next president. The new officers elected are: President, Mrs. Ada I. Atkinson, Omaha; vice-president, Miss Mattie C. Ellis, Peru; secretary, Miss Julia Wort, Lincoln.

We returned to our homes Saturday night, feeling that Omaha had treated us royally and that we had had a very profitable meeting.

CALIFORNIA ASSOCIATION, JULY MEETING.

The semi-annual meeting of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association was held Saturday, July 13th, 1912, in the faculty room, California Hall, President W. J. Cooper presiding.

The chief paper of the session was read by Dr. Daggett, of the University of California, the topic being "Economics in the High School." In opening Dr. Daggett said that Economics in the High School is as important as History, and prepares the pupil for life. He gave the result of an investigation he had made as to the number of high schools teaching Economics in the United States in which he found that sixty per cent. of the schools of the United States and forty per cent. of the schools of California are offering courses of Economics in some form. He thinks that the demand for the subject is constantly increasing. In continuing he said that the objects of Economics in the high school are, first, to describe, and make the student familiar with, the nature of economic problems; second, to show the complexity of economic problems; third, to show that those problems can be analyzed; fourth, to give practice in analysis, and, fifth, to discuss general principles.

In regard to the methods of teaching Economics he found that the classes are usually small and that the recitation method is favored rather than the lecture method. He discussed at some length the use of tests, questions, reports, outlines, etc., and showed how they could best be used effectively.

The discussion was opened by Mr. Haven Edwards, of the Oakland High School, who emphasized the need for Economics in the schools, pointing out that the latest gospel is the gospel of efficiency, and that to secure efficiency the high schools must increase instruction along the lines that would develop it. He showed that Economics is of prime importance to both girls and boys in securing household efficiency as well as political and social efficiency.

He answered the three chief objections to the teaching of Economics in the high schools, namely, that the subject is too hard, that there are not enough efficient and trained teachers of the subject, and that the college is the place to study it, by showing that as students have proved their ability to do hard thinking in other subjects, such as Physics, they can do it in Economics; second, that the demand for trained teachers will soon create a supply, and, third, that most of the students in high schools do not go to college and that they are the ones who need instruction in the high schools.

MAUDE F. STEVENS, Secretary.

The Training of High School Teachers of History*

By CHAIRMAN FREDERIC L. PAXSON.

The Committee on the Certification of High School Teachers of History was appointed in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, at its Evanston meeting, in 1911. As organized by President McLaughlin, the Committee consists of the following members: F. H. Anderson, E. C. Barker, G. L. Jones, L. M. Larson, O. G. Libby, St. George L. Sioussat, J. W. Townsend, J. Viles, W. C. Wilcox, J. P. Willard, J. A. Woodburn, and F. L. Paxson, chairman. These members have been in active correspondence among themselves and with the chairman of the Committee during the past year. It has not been possible for them to meet as a body, but there have been a number of personal conferences. As the result of a year's work, the Committee now has before it its problem clearly defined and ready to be considered point by point.

From the beginning it was apparent to the Committee that there are three classes of teachers of history in the high schools. These are, first, those whose preparation includes a standard college course; second, those who have had something less than the training of the ordinary bachelor; third, those who, having completed a college course, have taken one or more years of specialized instruction in the historical field. After considerable correspondence relating to these three classes, the Committee decided to confine its attention for the present to the class first mentioned; those persons who have received the bachelor's degree. Although these do not include all the existing teachers of history, it was felt that the Association ought not to countenance the appointment in high schools of persons whose preparation has fallen below that of the regular college course. On the other hand, while the Committee would be glad to see the requirement for the history teacher raised so as to include graduate preparation, it believes that this ideal is of the future and does not call for immediate consideration at this time. Accordingly, the Committee has devoted itself to a study of the problems involved in preparing the college graduate who proposes to teach history in the high schools.

In considering the college course with reference to the needs of the teacher of history, the first question has to do with the proportion of the undergraduate work to be allotted to the department of history. The standard college course consists of about 120 semester-hours or credits. These credits are variously described in different institutions, but, in general, most institutions approximate this amount of work. Whether history, when taken for professional preparation, should include 20 per cent. or 40 per cent. or even 60 per cent. of these 120 credit hours, is the fundamental problem, and the Committee, through a sub-committee, is now devoting its attention to the matter. A second question, important, though less fundamental, relates to the percentage of hours to be allotted to collateral subjects including political economy, political science, and sociology. It is the belief of the Committee that the course ought to include work in these fields, in addition to the work in history. The amount of work that ought to be taken in these fields is under consideration in a second sub-committee.

Having determined the number of hours of history which ought

to be required in the standard college course, it becomes necessary to determine the distribution of these hours among elementary and advanced courses. It is usually the custom to begin college history with an elementary survey course which is variously placed in the fields of general European history, English history, ancient history, or American history. These courses appear to be conducted with reference to general training and to method of study. The question has arisen as to whether the prospective teacher ought to be required to cover the ground of all of the four high-school units in elementary courses, or whether his time will be better spent under a different arrangement. The possibilities with reference to survey courses seem to be limited to three. The student may be required to cover the whole field in four courses of, say, six credit hours each, thus devoting a minimum of twenty-four one hundred twentieths of his college work to elementary courses. Or, secondly, he may be required to cover, say, two of the six-credit courses with an expenditure of twelve one hundred twentieths, and may thus be allowed to devote the surplus of his time to advanced specialized work in some limited fields of history. The Committee has been much impressed by the problem of intellectual discipline and historical equipment raised at this point, and no decision has yet been reached. A third possibility is the creation of a special course for teachers. Such a course might well cover two years and involve twelve units of work. In this course the whole field of high-school history might be covered. The answer to the question as to the distribution of the hours allotted to history is likely to be in the direction of one of the three suggestions. As to which one, it is too early to make a prophecy; but the Committee is confident that it has taken a long step towards the solution of the problem in having analyzed it clearly and concretely.

A portion of the undergraduate training in history will certainly be allotted to advanced courses covering limited periods in which the student shall have a chance to acquire an intimate knowledge of the historic mind and historical procedure. How much time shall be given to these courses necessarily depends upon the answer to the questions stated above. How these courses shall be arranged, how they shall be conducted, needs careful consideration, which is being given to it by a sub-committee.

There is still a third type of course, which has been brought to the attention of the Committee, and upon which investigations are being made. A course in the methods of teaching history is now given in several of the larger universities, sometimes within the department of education or pedagogy. There appears to be a nearly unanimous opinion that such a course ought to be included in the requirements for the history teacher. It has not yet decided whether this ought to be given as history or an education; but the problem is being faced. Still more important, the committee is endeavoring to find out what the content of this course ought to be, and what amount of time it ought to occupy. There are some members of the Committee who would be glad to see, in addition to a course in methods of teaching history, a course in methods of historical research. No one has asked that a graduate seminary be included in the undergraduate requirements, and there is no intention of recommending that undergraduates be required to specialize in historical production. But whether the undergraduate should be allowed to go out to teach without having some understanding of the problems which the historical investigator must solve has been raised within the Committee. It is too early to anticipate its answer. With several sub-committees working upon different phases of the main problem, the Committee is able to report progress and to suggest its willingness to continue the investigation, if such course should meet with the approval of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

The Committee recognizes that any definition of the proper college course for history teachers is only a preliminary step toward a correct solution of the problem. College faculties will have to be confronted, educated, and persuaded to revise their requirements before any such course can be made operative. Even after the college faculties have been brought into line, and this will unquestionably be a serious matter in those colleges whose equipment is meagre and whose instructors are already working over time, it will be necessary to convince the appointing authorities (superintendents or school boards) that no teacher of history ought to be employed unless he has been trained to teach history. And unless it shall prove that there is a proper and direct professional training for the history teacher, there can be no hope of inducing the appointing authorities to recognize the training.

* This is the preliminary report made at Bloomington, Ind., May, 1912, by a Committee that was appointed a year ago.

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

SWIFT, LINDSAY. William Lloyd Garrison. Philadelphia, George W. Jacobs & Co. Pp. 412. \$1.25.

This is one of the American Crisis Biographies edited by Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer, Ph.D. This book has been written in partnership with Henry Burroughs Lathrop, Associate Professor of English in the University of Wisconsin.

The authors have written in a very thoughtful and painstaking way throughout the book, with a careful balancing of ideas for, and against, Garrison. Opinions of other men are given freely with a reserved but independent judgment on the part of the authors. As one follows Garrison through these four hundred pages of accounts of his settled antagonism to every complacent conventionality that American society held dear, besides his terrible onslaught on slavery, it comes to be no wonder that he was held accursed by the vast majority of people in the United States. He attacked their settled ideas of religion, of social customs, of organized political institutions, of fundamental economic conditions, and even the constitution itself—more than sacred in the minds of the Northern people—with such bitterness of feeling and fierceness of invective as to leave no room for compromise or adjustment. Nothing but annihilation of every institution or custom he opposed would ever satisfy Garrison.

The book is not adapted to high school students, but will prove a very valuable study, indeed, for advanced college students and for all those who wish to get beneath the surface in their study of American development.

Carl E. Pray.

POLLARD, A. F. The History of England: a Study in Political Evolution. (Home University Library.) New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256. 50 cents.

To compress the history of England into a little volume of fewer than 250 small pages of text is, of course, an impossibility; but Professor Pollard's book is not a history in the accepted sense; it is a discussion of the general course of English development, a commentary on the more significant events of English history. Details are necessarily suppressed, and the space chiefly devoted to factors and results. The work is divided into nine chapters, each dealing with some prominent phase of social and political evolution: typical headings are "the submergence of England, 1066-1272," "emergence of the English people, 1272-1485," and "the industrial revolution." It is written in the author's easy, varied, half-humorous style, and teems with brilliant generalizations, though these are not always stated with the care that accuracy demands. The teacher will find it a stimulating and suggestive volume; it will also prove very serviceable as supplementary reading during the periods of review.

Laurence M. Larson.

University of Illinois.

FOWLER, W. WARDE. Rome. (Home University Library.) New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 254. 50 cents.

For the teacher of Ancient History this is, perhaps, the most useful book of this whole useful series, as far as published. With great success the author has accomplished the extremely difficult task of selecting wisely from his vast treasure-house of knowledge the material most worth while for this little book.

From the introductory chapter which is an admirably concise and luminous characterization of the Romans, to the final one on the Empire under the Antonines, and what the Empire has given us, it stands the supreme test, it is interesting. From this work teachers may learn the ever-needed lesson of going rapidly over a period and yet of bringing out its significance. "The Advance of Rome in Italy" and "The Struggle with Carthage and Hannibal" are traced in two chapters only. The chapters on "The Training of the Roman Character," "Dominion and Degeneracy" and "Life in the Roman Empire" are particularly valuable.

In a wonderful way Professor Fowler has subordinated facts to great principles and has brought out the underlying causes, motives and results of Roman life. A teacher's perspective cannot fail to be improved by reading this work by a man who tells us that he is a life-long student of Roman history, and who, we instinctively feel, is a life-long lover of that history. It cannot be recommended too highly for secondary schools.

Victoria A. Adams.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

HEITLAND, W. E. A Short History of the Roman Republic. New York, Putnam's Sons. Pp. 528. \$2.00.

"The latest historian of Rome" states in the preface that he has not been contented with a mere abridgement of his three-volume history, but that he has rewritten the whole as a new book, omitting all references to authorities and avoiding unimportant persons and details. He says that he has introduced some new matter in the first part of the book, as well as the pictures of coins which are not in his first work.

It is a narrative of great thoroughness. While presenting no new views it has the interest that is always found in a work by an author possessing a keen historical sense, and at the same time, fullness of knowledge and a clear style. Almost a half of the book is given to that period of most thrilling interest, the last century of the republic. The work of the famous Romans in this age of great personalities is depicted vividly and forcibly. This alone will earn for the book the high esteem of teachers of history.

It should be placed besides such histories as those of Pelham, How and Leigh, Bury and Shuckburgh. Teachers and advanced students will find it very valuable.

Victoria A. Adams.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

WALLINGTON, NELLIE URNER. American History by American Poets. New York, Duffield & Co. Two vols. Pp. 444 and 455. \$1.50 each.

Miss Wallington has carried out a rather ambitious undertaking in her two-volume collection of American History by American Poets. She makes no statement of any sort as to her method of collection or her standards for admission or rejection. Much of the work consists of what might be called "newspaper" poems, poems or rhymes that have appeared from time to time and have struck a popular chord for a limited time.

Here and there amidst all this rhyming may be found ballads with a real Old-English swing to them, some manifestly fashioned after English ballads familiar to the Americans through their English ancestry. Of course, there appear, also, the well-known historical poems by standard American authors, serving to show what a gulf there is between poems and rhymes. In quality the poems run all the way from "Our Twenty-six Presidents in Rhyme" to Lowell's Commemoration Ode.

This will prove a very interesting and helpful book to all who wish to appreciate the various stages of civilization through which we have passed as a nation. There are complete title, first line and author indices, but no table of contents or preface, both of which would have been very helpful in a work of this sort.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

Carl E. Pray.

GOODNOW, FRANK J. Social Reform and the Constitution. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxi, 365. \$1.50.

In this series of learned chapters or monographs, Professor Goodnow has attempted to ascertain "from an examination of the decisions of our courts, and particularly of the United States Supreme Court, to what extent the Constitution of the United States in its present form is a bar to the adoption of the most important social reform measures which have been made parts of the reform program of the most progressive peoples of the present day." In discussing concrete measures of reform, the author has refrained from "passing judgment" on such measures, "and particularly from expressing any opinion as to their expediency in the conditions of present American life." In the course of the volume the author examines a large number of court decisions and comes to the conclusion that the United States Supreme Court has on the whole been more liberal than the State Courts in its attitude toward reform measures. In fact he goes on to say that "seldom has the Supreme Court declared unconstitutional from the point of view of the Federal Constitution an act of a State legislature offering a remedy for social abuses which was not pretty clearly opposed to some specific provision of the Constitution." The volume as a whole is timely, scholarly, and stimulating, and will be of interest to all students of constitutional law and social reform.

Thomas F. Moran.

Purdue University.

ALLEN, WILLIAM H. *Woman's Part in Government*. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. xv, 377. \$1.50.

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Dr. Allen shows the relation of woman's work to public sanitation, the "social evil," municipal "graft," the schools, civic beautification and cleanliness and other important topics—"whether she votes or not." He contends that woman's work is comprehensive and important entirely regardless of the right of suffrage. The book will be of especial interest to those teachers who are doing something to improve conditions in their local communities.

Purdue University.

Thomas F. Moran.

MAHAFFY, JOHN P. *What Have the Greeks Done for Modern Civilization?* New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons. Student's Edition. Pp. 283. \$1.50.

The publishers have rendered a service to students of history by issuing in this new edition at a moderate price, books which were previously published in a more expensive form. Especially is this true of this work, the Lowell lectures of 1908-9, on Greek civilization by such an acknowledged authority as Professor Mahaffy.

Many books have been written on the literature and art of the Greeks, but Professor Mahaffy takes a wider range and describes with brilliancy and enthusiasm our political, social, scientific, and philosophical heritage, for he is no lukewarm admirer of the Greeks. To him "not only Greek form, but Greek thought, has been the greatest and the clearest that the world has yet seen." To him, too, it is tolerably certain that the Romans only transmitted refinements that the Greeks had taught them.

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Altogether it is an excellent book to be made use of at the conclusion of the course on Greek history, and cannot be recommended too highly to teachers; some parts of it will even prove profitable reading for advanced pupils in secondary schools.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

Victoria A. Adams.

pictures, and the only series of distinctly historical maps dealing with American History, have owed their publication in a very large degree to the influence of this collection, while the Association itself has taken up this third side of this committee's work so extensively as to create a special committee for the publication of historical pictures from the sources. A more detailed statement of this work may be found in the catalogue of the collection. It may be suggested that part of the work of the curator and of the collection in general ought to consist in the criticism of the material offered for exhibition. This, it is impossible to do properly at the present time, but no material is admitted to exhibition which is palpably unfit for any school room. Much is hoped for this side of the Committee's work, and much can be done in the direction of sifting the material offered for the consideration of teachers. At present, however, the collection does offer the progressive teacher the means of comparing and criticizing before purchasing; something that has not been possible before. The truth of this will be better understood when it is stated that practically every important dealer in the United States, besides many in England, Scotland, France, Germany and Belgium, have contributed the best of their material for observation in this collection.

Of course, in order to be useful at all this collection needs to be extensively advertised. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE has helped very much in this, and articles have appeared in the "Boston Transcript," the "Monitor," and in other places concerning it, while the "Strangers Directory," published regularly by the "Transcript" has a notice concerning it among the other attractions in Boston.

Besides this need of publicity the regret and crying need of the collection is more space in order to adequately display the material which is now in the possession of the Association. Visitors to the collection usually have little time to unearth material which is not convenient, and the Association cannot afford at present an attendant to see that the visiting teachers see everything. Simmons College has been as generous as possible, but the Committee and all the visitors to the collection are unanimous in the wish for larger and better accommodations.

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Collection of Historical Matter

(Continued from Page 149)

teachers have brought classes with them to view the collection, besides representatives of many New England colleges, schools of Greater Boston, and others from Western Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Maine and New Hampshire. Of course, many persons saw the collection in its embryonic stage at the three special exhibitions. When one superintendent of schools spends two hours taking notes, some idea may be obtained as to the amount of information obtainable.

On the other hand, the usefulness of the collection has not depended, by any means, upon the number of visitors. Information has been sought by correspondence by the Union Theological Seminary, Amherst College, and other schools and colleges as far west as California. This is becoming quite an important part of the Committee's work.

Another side must be mentioned also. At least two series of

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American History.

- Adams, Charles F. *The Trent Affair*. Boston: Massachusetts Historical Society. 44 pp. 25c. net.
- Barker, Eugene C., and others. *A School History of Texas*. Chicago: Row, Peterson & Co. 384 pp. 65c.
- Beard, William E. *It Happened in Nashville; A Collection of Historical Incidents*. Nashville, Tenn: Davie Printer. 65 pp. 25c.
- Belisle, Alexandre. *Histoire de la presse Franco-Américaine; comprenant l'histoire de l'émigration des Canadiens-français aux États-Unis*. Worcester, Mass.: L'Opinion Publique. 456 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Blair, Emma H., translator and editor. *The Indian Tribes of the Upper Mississippi Valley and the Region of the Great Lakes, as described by Nicholas Perrot, Baqueville de la Potherie, and others*. In 2 vols. Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co. 372, 412 pp. \$10.00.
- Bourne, Henry E., and Benton, E. J. *Introductory American History*. Boston: Heath. 204 pp. [5 pp. bibl.]. 60c.
- Briggs, Samuel D. *Regulation of Interstate Commerce; History of Bills and Resolutions Introduced in Congress, 1862-1911*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 126 pp.
- Brotherhood of North American Indians. *Memorial presented to Congress*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 11 pp.
- Century Readings in United States History, edited by Charles L. Barstow. [Stories for elementary grades.] *The Civil War*, 224 pp.; *The Colonists and the Revolution*, 239 pp.; *Explorers and Settlers*, 222 pp.; *A New Nation*, 211 pp.; *The Progress of a United People*, 220 pp.; *The Westward Movement*, 231 pp. New York: The Century Company. Each 50c. net.
- Chandler, Julian A. C., and Chitwood, Oliver P. *Makers of American History; a beginners' book in the history of our country*. Boston: Silver, Burdett. 318 pp. 60c.
- Clarke, George K. *History of Needham, Mass., 1711 to 1911*. Boston: G. E. Littlefield, 67 Cornhill. 746 pp. \$5.00.
- Coburn, Frederick W. *The Battle of April 19, 1775, in Lexington, Concord, [etc.]*. Lexington, Mass.: The Author. 171 pp. [5 pp. bibl.]. \$1.25.
- Cookinham, Henry J. *History of Oneida County, New York, 1700-1912*. In 2 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke. \$20.00.
- Coolidge, Archibald C. *The United States as a World Power*. New York: Macmillan. 376 pp. 50c. net.
- Cornish, L. Craig. *The Settlement of Hingham, Mass.* Boston: Rockwell and Churchill Press. 23 pp. 35c. net.
- Cutter, William R. *Genealogical and Family History of Central New York*. In 3 vols. New York: Lewis Publishing Company. \$19.00.
- Davis, Andrew McFarland. *The Shays Rebellion*. Worcester, Mass.: American Antiquarian Society. 25 pp. 50c.
- Earle (Mrs.), Alice M. *Stage Coach and Tavern Days*. New York: Macmillan. 434 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Engelhardt, Zephyrin. *The Missions and Missionaries of California*. Vol. 2, Upper California, part 1, general history. San Francisco: J. H. Barry Company. 682 pp. \$2.75.
- Enock, C. Reginald. *The Secret of the Pacific: A Discussion of the Origin of the Early Civilization of America*. New York: Scribner. 359 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Evans, Edward S. *The Seals of Virginia*. Richmond, Va.: D. Bottom. 47 pp.
- Fanning, Nathaniel. *Fanning's Narrative: being the Memoirs of Nathaniel Fanning, an Officer of the Revolutionary Navy, 1778-1783*. New York: De Vinne Press, Naval History Society publisher. 258 pp. \$7.00 net.
- Federalist, The. New York: Dutton. 456 pp. 35c. net.
- Fehner, H. B. *Summary of United States History and Civil Government*. [Third edition.] St. Louis: Concordia Publishing House. 99 pp. 30c.
- Fitts, James H. *History of Newfields, N. H., 1638-1911*. Concord, N. H.: Rumford Press. 785 pp. \$2.50.
- Foster, Eli G. *A History of the United States*. Topeka, Kan.: History Publishing Company. 519 pp. 80c.
- Four Chapters in Wisconsin Indian History. Various authors. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 176 pp. 25c.
- Four episodes in Wisconsin pioneering. Various authors. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 218 pp. 25c.
- Furman, Moore. *The Letters of Moore Furman, Deputy Quartermaster-General of New Jersey in the Revolution*. New York: F. H. Hitchcock, 105 West Fortieth Street. 162 pp. \$3.00.
- Geer, Theodore T. *Fifty Years in Oregon: Experiences, etc.* New York: Neale. 536 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Gorton, James I., and Treat, Arthur. *Elementary History of the United States*. New York: Charles E. Merrill. 40c.
- Hall, Edward H. *Philipse Manor Hall at Yonkers, N. Y.* New York: American Scenic and Historical Preservation Society. 255 pp. 75c.
- Halsey, John J., editor. *A History of Lake County, Ill.* Philadelphia: R. S. Bates. 872 pp. \$25.00.
- Hamilton, P. J., and others. *The Founding of Mobile, 1702-1718*. Mobile, Ala.: Commercial Printer. 104 pp. Gratis.
- Hart, Charles H. *Robert Lettis Hooper, Deputy Quartermaster-General in the Continental Army*. Philadelphia. 32 pp. Private price.
- Haworth, Paul L. *Reconstruction and Union, 1865-1912*. New York: Holt. 255 pp. 50c. net.
- Hawthorne, Julian. *The History of the United States from 1492-1912*. 3 vols. New York: P. T. Collier & Son. \$2.25.
- Helm, L. T. *Fort Dearborn Massacre, written in 1814 by Lina T. Helm, one of the survivors, [etc.]*. Chicago: Rand, McNally. 137 pp. 75c.
- Hunt, Gaillard. *Pelatih Webster and the Constitution*. [Reprinted from "The Nation."] Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 8 pp.
- Hutchins, Edward R., M.D., composer. *The War of the Sixties*. New York: Neale. 490 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Johnson, Charles F. *The Long Roll, a Journal of the Civil War, 1861-1863*. East Aurora, N. Y.: The Roycrofters. 241 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Journals of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, 1712-14—1723-26. Vol. 9. Richmond, Va.: E. Wadley Company. 441 pp. \$10.00.
- Journey, (A) from New York to Montreal . . . in 1824, printed from the original MS. in the possession of F. D. Andrews. Vineland, N. J.: F. D. Andrews. 21 pp. 35c.
- Kennedy, Elijah R. *The Contest for California in 1861*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 361 pp. \$2.25 net.
- Lawyer, James P. *History of Ohio*. Guernsey, O.: J. P. Lawyer. 347 pp. \$2.50.
- Learned, Marion Dexter. *Guide to the MS. Materials Relating to American History in the German State Archives*. Washington, D. C.: Carnegie Institute. 352 pp. \$2.25.
- Lodge, Henry Cabot. *General Arbitration Treaties with Great Britain*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 34 pp.
- Maile, John L. *Prison Life in Andersonville*. Los Angeles: Grafton Publishing. 152 pp. \$1.00.
- Merrick, George B., and Tibbals, W. R. *Genesis of Steamboating on Western Rivers*. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 148 pp. 30c.
- Mevis, Daniel S. *Pioneer Recollections*. [Early history of Lansing, Mich.] Lansing, Mich.: R. Smith. 129 pp. \$1.00.
- "Miles" (pseudonym). *The Campaign of Gettysburg*. Boston: Small, Maynard. 202 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Military Historical Society of Massachusetts. *Operations on the Atlantic Coast, 1861-1865; Virginia, 1862-1864; Vicksburg*. In 12 vols. Vol. 9. Boston: Military Historical Society of Massachusetts. 585 pp. \$2.50.
- Mills, Borden H. *George Mills, a Soldier of the Revolution*. Albany, N. Y.: C. F. Williams & Son. 42 pp. Gratis.
- Myers, Gustavus. *History of the Supreme Court of the United States*. Chicago, Kerr. 823 pp. \$2.00.
- Paullin, Charles O. *Diplomatic Negotiations of American Naval Officers, 1778-1885*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 380 pp. \$2.00.
- Paxson, Frederic L. *The Admission of the "Omnibus" States 1889-90*. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 96 pp. 15c.
- Rader, Perry S. *History of Missouri*. Jefferson City, Mo.: Hugh Stephens. 197 pp. 90c.
- Ransom, Frank L. *The Sunshine State: A History of South Dakota*. Mitchell, S. D.: Educator School Supply Company. 159 pp. 65c.
- Read, Benjamin M. *History of New Mexico*. Santa Fé, N. M.: New Mexican Pr. 812 pp. \$10.00.
- Reid, Whitelaw. *The Scot in America and the Ulster Scot*. Two addresses. New York: Macmillan. 67 pp. 40c. net.
- Tariff. *List of United States public documents relating to the various tariff laws and Canadian reciprocity*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office.
- Thomas, Allen C. *A History of the United States*. New edition revised. New York: Jewish Press. \$1.25.
- Thwaites, Reuben G., and Kellogg, Louise P., editors. *Frontier Defense on the Upper Ohio, 1777-1778*. Composed from the Draper MSS. Madison, Wis.: State Historical Society. 329 pp. \$1.50.
- Thwaites, Reuben G., and Kendal, Calvin N. *A History of the United States for Grammar Schools*. New York: Houghton, Mifflin. 471 pp. \$1.00.
- Tilney, Robert. *My Life in the Army: Three Years and a Half with the Army of the Potomac, 1862-1865*. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. 247 pp. \$1.00.

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Calumet High School, Chicago.

Victoria A. Adams.

pictures, and the only series of distinctly historical maps dealing with American History, have owed their publication in a very large degree to the influence of this collection, while the Association itself has taken up this third side of this committee's work so extensively as to create a special committee for the publication of historical pictures from the sources. A more detailed statement of this work may be found in the catalogue of the collection. It may be suggested that part of the work of the curator and of the collection in general ought to consist in the criticism of the material offered for exhibition. This it is impossible to do properly at the present time, but no material is admitted to exhibition which is palpably unfit for any school room. Much is hoped for this side of the Committee's work, and much can be done in the direction of sifting the material offered for the consideration of teachers. At present, however, the collection does offer the progressive teacher the means of comparing and criticizing before purchasing; something that has not been possible before. The truth of this will be better understood when it is stated that practically every important dealer in the United States, besides many in England, Scotland, France, Germany and Belgium, have contributed the best of their material for observation in this collection.

Of course, in order to be useful at all this collection needs to be extensively advertised. THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE has helped very much in this, and articles have appeared in the "Boston Transcript," the "Monitor," and in other places concerning it, while the "Strangers Directory," published regularly by the "Transcript" has a notice concerning it among the other attractions in Boston.

Besides this need of publicity the regret and crying need of the collection is more space in order to adequately display the material which is now in the possession of the Association. Visitors to the collection usually have little time to unearth material which is not convenient, and the Association cannot afford at present an attendant to see that the visiting teachers see everything. Simmons College has been as generous as possible, but the Committee and all the visitors to the collection are unanimous in the wish for larger and better accommodations.

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Collection of Historical Matter

(Continued from Page 149)

teachers have brought classes with them to view the collection, besides representatives of many New England colleges, schools of Greater Boston, and others from Western Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Maine and New Hampshire. Of course, many persons saw the collection in its embryonic stage at the three special exhibitions. When one superintendent of schools spends two hours taking notes, some idea may be obtained as to the amount of information obtainable.

On the other hand, the usefulness of the collection has not depended, by any means, upon the number of visitors. Information has been sought by correspondence by the Union Theological Seminary, Amherst College, and other schools and colleges as far west as California. This is becoming quite an important part of the Committee's work.

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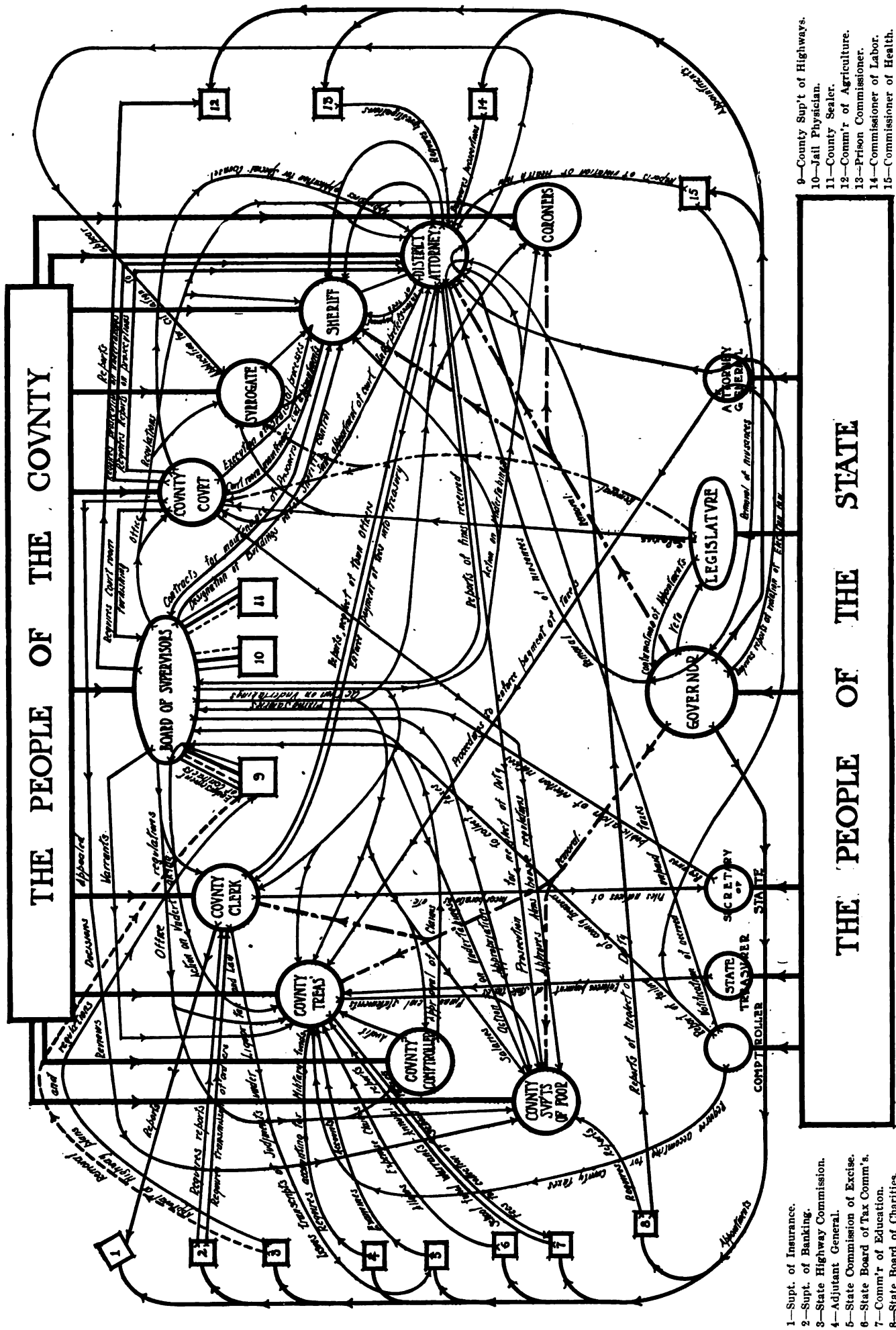
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Historical Method in the Seventeenth Century

BY NANCY E. SCOTT, PH.D., WILSON COLLEGE, CHAMBERSBURG, PA.

Good historical method is not exclusively the invention of the scientific historians of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. I suspect that if we were to search we might find that all through the ages at least a few orderly minds have been conscious of some of its laws. Certainly was this true of a Mr. John Hales, who lived in the midst of the most disorderly period of that most disorderly century, the seventeenth. His little tract on "The Method of Reading Profane History" contains many familiar maxims. In principle it might almost have stepped forth from a modern seminar presided over by the genius of Langlois and Seignobos. Hales did not, indeed, make any attempt to produce a formal or exhaustive treatise after the manner of the excellent manual of the latter gentlemen. His tract, it seems, from occasional references within it, was merely in answer to the request of a friend who was about to undertake the guidance of a young gentleman in his study of Roman history. That it should even, under these circumstances, be so complete and scientific is the more remarkable. But the friend chose his advisor well. He realized the value of chips from Hales' mental workshop, since no scholar of his day was accounted wiser. He had been for a time professor of Greek at Oxford, but later withdrew to the seclusion of a fellowship at Eaton College, where he lived and worked among his books. Although he lived thus apart from men, he had a large circle of friends who esteemed him highly and who sought his advice on almost every possible subject. Anthony à Wood spoke of him as "that most incomparable person, whom I may justly style a walking dictionary." Other men, too, of undoubted standing bore witness, not only to his knowledge, but to his judgment. They spoke of him as "the best critic of our later times," "a man of as great a sharpness, quickness, and subtlety of wit, as ever this or perhaps any nation bred"—"as great a master of polite, various, and universal learning, as ever yet conversed with books." Obviously, such a man's advice as to methods had back of it the force of practical experience. And experience, it seems, provided it be wide and deep enough, has not changed much in its needs since then.

Hales' use in his title of "reading" rather than studying with reference to history has a particularly seventeenth century flavor. One feels in his term the touch of the scholar of big proportions who took so much pleasure in the process of acquiring knowledge that he could give to it no term implying an interest which had even momentarily to be an enforced one. Its use was a part of the fullness of joy of Renaissance scholarship, and betokened no loss of dignity. To read history, as Hales understood it, involved quite as much of painstaking care as is indicated by a modern student under a more high-sounding term. A surprising number of his rules for that reading are, as we shall see, quite in keeping with those learned in a modern class room.

Note his emphasis on chronology and geography, our familiar "handmaids of history": "In perusal of history," said he, "first, provide you some writers in chronology and cosmography." "For," he argued, "if you be ignorant of times and places, when and where things you read were done,

it cannot choose but breed confusion in your reading, and make you many times grossly to slip and mistake in your discourse." Scientific aids in such matters, it seems, were as well known then as now. Ploetz and Putzger are not pioneers in their fields. "Have by you," continued Hales, "Helvicus, His Chronology; and a map of the country in which you are conversant; and repair unto them to acquaint you with time and place, when, and where you are. If you be versing the ancient histories, then provide you Ptolomy's maps, or Ortelius his Conatus Geographici; if the latter, then some of the modern carts." In these fields the Germans were even then the leaders. "Helvicus, His Chronology," refers to the Theatrum Chronologicum published in 1609 by Christopher Helwig, or Helvicus, professor of Greek at Giesen. Ortelius, or Abram Oertel, was a German living at Antwerp. He was Philip II's geographer, the friend of Mercator, and called by his contemporaries the Ptolomy of his age. Hales knew the best authorities.

"To give him a general taste of his business and add light unto particular authors," he counseled his reader before taking up detailed study, to make use of an epitome, not Ploetz this time, but L. Florus, a Latin historian of the second century, who wrote a compendium of Roman history from the beginning to the time of Augustus. Hales would finish out Florus with "Eutropius, His Breviarum," which carried the story to 364. It was a manual of the last quarter of the fourth century, and long in popular use.

Of the benefits of external criticism in the establishment of accurate texts he was well aware. Faulty editions were always to be avoided. "One's choice," he said, "is best of those whom either Lipsius, Gruterius, or Casaubon have set forth." These men represented the best critical scholarship of the continent in the preceding generation. "But," added Hales, with a queer little practical touch, "if you be careful to buy fair books, you can scarcely choose amiss." His comments upon the text of Tacitus show that the latter was a fruitful source of trouble then as now. "But as for Tacitus, the chief cock in the court basket, it is," he said, "but meet you take special good advice in reading of him." "Lipsius, Savile, Picheva and others" (the first three had published the most recent critical editions of Tacitus), these men, said Hales, "have taken great pains with him in emaculating the text, in settling the reading, opening the customs, expounding the story, etc., and therefore you must have recourse unto them." "But," this, he added significantly, "was necessary in only critical and not courtly learning." Advice concerning the latter was evidently what his reader wanted for the instruction of his young gentleman. For that purpose, continued Hales, "Tacitus required other kind of comment." "For since he is a concise, dense, and by repute a very oraculus writer, almost in every line pointing at some state maxim; it had been a good employment for some good wit to have expounded, proved, exemplified at large, what he doth for the most part only but intimate." And this was long, long before the scholarly warfare of Seebohm, Ross, Freeman, and Taylor in their attempt to supply this very kind of comment. Certainly modern students will re-echo

the wish of Hales that it might have been done once for all. Some one of whom Hales knew had attempted it, but, as he said, "to little purpose." Gruterius, the Dutch scholar of the preceding generation, "had done somewhat." Scipio Ammirati or Ammirato, the famous historian of Florence, of the sixteenth century, had "glossed him in some places," but, added Hales, it was "according to the shallowness of the new Italian wits," a curious commentary on the Italian scholarship following the floodtide of the Renaissance. One man indeed had attempted an extensive commentary on Tacitus. "Annibal Scotus, groom of the chamber to Sixtus Quintus," the reforming pope from 1585-90, "hath desperately gone through him all, whom I would wish you to look upon," said Hales, with his dry humor, "not for any good you shall reap by him (for he is the worst that I have ever read) only you shall see by that which he had with great infelicity attempted, what kind of comment it is, which if it were well performed would be very acceptable to us."

He emphasized the value of source study. In choosing authors, he said, "make special account of those who wrote the things of their own times, or in which themselves were agents, especially, added he, as if fresh from a perusal of Langlois and Seignobos on the test for good faith and accuracy, "if you find them to be such as durst tell the truth." Of the pitfalls of style, or heroics, or of prejudice into which poorly prepared writers of secondary works were apt to stumble, he was well aware. "Where men," said he, "write and decipher actions, long before their time, they may do it with great wit and elegance, express much politic wisdom, frame very beautiful pieces, but how far they express the true countenance and life of the actions themselves, of this," he added in his quaint seventeenth century way, "it were no impiety to doubt; unless we were assured that they drew it from those who knew and saw what they did."

The list of authors whom, in keeping with these ideas, he recommended for reading in Roman history would, I fear, somewhat astound the modern college student. First in the list came Livy, whom he described as "very much broken, and imperfect and parts of him lost." "Wherefore," he advised, "when you have gone him through, then, if you please, you may look back, and take a view of his imperfections, and supply them out of some other authors, partly Latin, as Justin, Sallust, Caesar's Commentaries, Hirtius, Velleius, Peterculus; partly Greek, as Polybius, Plutarch, Dionysius, Halicarnassus, Appianus Alexandrinus, Dion Cassius; out of which," he modestly added, "you may reasonably supply whatsoever is wanting in Livy." He made only one concession. "Your Greek authors," he said, "if you list not to trouble yourself with the language, you shall easily find in Latin sufficient to your use. "Only Plutarch," he continued, "whatever the matter is, hath no luck to the Latin, and therefore I would advise you either to read him in French or in English." Continuing with his list, for the history of the Empire, he advised reading Seutonius Tranquillus, "who being perused," said he, "your way lies open to the reading of our politicians' great apostle, Tacitus." As the same "infelicity" had befallen him as Livy, he was to be supplemented by Dion Cassius or his epitomizer, Xiphiline. "And thus are you come to the reign of Nerva where Seutonius and Tacitus ended; hitherto to come," he concluded, "is a reasonable talk for you yet." I imagine his correspondent quite agreed with him. Hales would, if he wished, in another letter, relate the state of the story to Constantine's death, or farther, to the fall of the Western Empire, interesting conclusions to us—since they are neither 395 or 800, the dates with which we usually end our texts. If the second letter was ever called for, it is not preserved among Hales' papers.

Hales next proceeded to advise his friend as to what facts he ought to glean from this mass of material. They could,

he said, be roughly grouped under three heads, the story itself, *miscellanea*, and *moralia*. For the first, one might use an epitome, for such existed, he said, "as good as any you can frame of your own." But advised he, with discreet pedagogical insight, "if you did intend an exact knowledge of history, it were good you did this yourself, though it were *actum agere*; because what we do ourselves sticks best in our memories, and is most for use." For his second head, *miscellanea*, he certainly could have used no other term, since he included under it such diverse things as "names and genealogies of men; description of cities, hills, rivers, woods, etc., customs, offices, magistrates, prodigies; "certain quaint observations, as who was the first dictator? When the Romans first began to use shipping? or to coin gold? what manner of moneys the antients used? their manner of war and military instruments, and an infinite multitude of like nature." Evidently his conception of history was that of a well nigh all embracing subject, for surely here is much that we would class under geography, civics, economics, etc. I don't know just where we would place the "prodigies." Division of labor in the fields of the past had not gone very far in his day. All these *miscellanea* he termed "pleasant, but merely critical and scholastical" and hence not especially valuable to his friend for the instruction of the young gentleman. The third head, termed *moralia*, was, he advised him, the all important one, "that Penelope which you must woo." *Moralia* he defined as "all notable examples of justice, or religion, etc., apothegms, civil stratagems and plots to bring ends about; censures upon men's persons and actions; considerations upon men's natures and dispositions; all things that may serve for proof or disproof, illustration or amplification of any moral place; considerations of the circumstances of actions; the reasons why they prove successful; or their errors, if they prove unfortunate; as in the second Punic war, why Hannibal still prevailed by hastening his actions; Fabius, on the contrary, by delay. And this indeed is one of the special profits that come by history."

To the modern historian that word "*moralia*" looks suspicious. It smacks of history as a guide for present acts. But Hales used the word in another sense. By *moralia* he meant the interpretation of the materials of history, merely the giving of those explanations which would make the past better understood. His use of the word in a different sense from ours was the result of his sharp distinction between the epitome, the mere catalogue of events, and the more detailed history. All that lay back of acts themselves, motives, connection with past events, all that was psychological in character, he put under his term *moralia*. This fact he made clear in his comments upon Polybius whom he considered ("might we have him perfect") "one of the best that ever wrote story." And his reason was, that "whereas other historians content themselves to touch and point at the true reasons of events in civil business; Polybius, when he hath historically set down an action worthy consideration, leaves it not so, but reviews it, considers all the circumstances that were of force in the manage of it." Here is nothing but what may well harmonize with Ranke's famous, "I will simply tell you how it was."

In only one place does he seem, according to our canons, to have been unorthodox. While condemning, righteously enough, what he termed "a common scholical error," namely, "the filling of note-books with observations of great and famous events, either of great battles, or civil broils and contentions," "hero history," I suppose we would call it, he advised with great truth that "those who travel in history" ought to note the "things of ordinary course—to have a care of those discourses which express domestic and private actions," adding, however, the dubious reason, "especially if they be such wherein you yourself purpose to venture your fortunes." But perhaps in the light of what he has already

said, he meant no more than the observation of the general principles underlying some of the sciences of human activity, such as law, ethics, or economics. Even if he did not, I think we shall be willing not to allow his one error to stand too heavily against him.

Finally, "from the order of reading, and the matters in reading to be observed, we come," concluded he, "to the method of observation; what order we are for our best use to keep in entering our notes in our paper-books." The most amazing thing that Hales very nearly accomplished and perhaps the most modern, was what amounted practically to the slip method of taking notes. He was a thorough believer in notes. His was to be no leisurely reading of history as one might read a novel. One was not only to take notes, but to "allot some time to the reading of them," not once, but as often as possible, in order that they might be the better fixed in memory. "The nature of things themselves," together with this process of "editing" them, as a professor of mine used to say, under a system of marginal references, would suffice in most cases.

The common-place books so prevalent in his day he held up to ridicule. They had, he felt, departed so far from their original plainness and simplicity that "it was a great part of clerkship to know how to use them." The process was so "expensive of time and industry, that although at length," said he, "the work comes to perfection, yet, it is but like the silver mines in Wales, the profit will hardly quit the pains." Hales had the big man's fine scorn of being buried in a maze of minutiae. He wished to avoid the great labor of being what he called "over superstitiously methodical." And what though peradventure something be lost," reasoned he,

"it is a sign of great poverty of scholarship, where everything that is lost is missed; whereas rich and well accomplished learning is able to lose many things with little or no inconvenience." However, as the friend to whom he was writing could not afford to waste any time since he was "at about the noon of his day," and since the young gentleman would perhaps not be "over willing to take too much pains," he advised in this case a simple method which could, he said, be used with "most ease and profit." Notes were to be taken straight along without any effort at arrangement. Meanwhile a large index was to be constructed, and topics, as they occurred to one while reading, placed in it "each under his letter." "For thus," he explained "though your notes be confused in your papers, yet they are digested in your index, and to draw them together when you are to make use of them, will be nothing so great pains as it would be to have ranged them under their several heads at their first gathering." Certainly here was an ancestor in the direct line of the slip method of our seminars.

Indeed, I believe that we who have been trained in those modern workshops of history receive an added joy for the consciousness that their excellent maxims are not wholly a product of our time, but that some of them, or at least their beginnings, were evolved from every-day working rules of earnest scholars scattered here and there along the centuries. And of none could we have a more pleasing picture than of John Hales from the quiet of his study at Eaton, giving voice in this informal way, in a letter to his friend, to so many principles which have become the recognized bulwarks of historical scholarship.

Roman Survivals in Modern Life

An Illustration of the Unity of History.*

BY WILLIAM STARR MYERS, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AND POLITICS, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

Before turning our attention to Roman survivals in modern life, we should give a little thought to Rome herself, as she was in the days of her greatest glory, ere she fell prey to the invading barbarians, for, uniting in herself the results of the ancient civilization that had preceded her, she impressed on them the peculiar stamp of her being, and through her universal empire spread them abroad again, to permeate and influence the whole course of subsequent history.

The Roman Empire owed its greatness to the fact that its citizen put before everything his devotion to the political body; he surrendered himself and all his family, social, and business relations to the good of the state. In every-day life the Romans as a people were exceedingly industrious, and from the first thrifty and close in all their business dealings, being "keen in traffic and usurious in lending" (Merivale). As regards public life, their government was an imperial democracy, strongly centralized. The state did not exist for the individual, but the individual for the state.

Furthermore, as Ihne says—"the constitutional development of the republic attained its highest point in the course of the Punic Wars. After the fundamental principles of the republican constitution had been established in the time preceding the Hortensian Laws (287 B.C.), the succeeding generations contented themselves with applying those principles to the ever-varying circumstances in which they found

themselves, without attempting to introduce new ones. But the change in all outward conditions of power, wealth, culture, greatness and influence abroad, was so complete that the old machinery could not bear the strain thus necessarily put upon it. The republican form of government gave way after a severe and long-continued struggle, and finally the monarchy was established on its ruins." The empire became an unlimited despotism, without any ministry, nobles, or clergy, the parliamentary body, the Senate, being completely the tool of the Emperor.

The Roman religion was polytheistic, each of the powers of nature, each virtue, each art, being supposed to be the manifestation of some deity. Their gods were not clothed with human form, but were of a faraway, mystical, spiritual nature, cold and unsympathetic. Hence the people lost faith and interest in them, and drifted away into abject infidelity and agnosticism.

At last, after more than a thousand years of relative success, Rome fell before the terrible onslaughts of the barbarians, and as a world-power existed no more. Ever since that time, as Bryce says, "she has been a city of destruction, and Christians have vied with pagans, citizens with enemies, in urging on the fatal work."

But although Rome lost her universal sovereignty, she still lives in the laws, customs, government, and institutions of modern times, for the underlying principle of much of our civilization is Roman. In A.D. 476 her earthly government fell, but, strange to state, though nevertheless the inevitable

* From a lecture delivered to the class in Roman History at the Summer School of the South (University of Tennessee), Knoxville, Tenn., July, 1912.

outcome of a commonwealth with the character of that of the Roman Empire, her power became to a great extent spiritual, the Church took the place of the state. The free-spirited Roman could find no liberty equal to that of the Christian society,—the people turned to the Church for comfort and protection, for even the barbarian revered it. It became the moving force that unified Europe.

The Catholic Church, though Greek in its creed, and Asiatic in worship, was Roman in its constitution, the institutions of Rome passing over into its government. Says Bryce in his "Holy Roman Empire," "the church felt its need of some centralized government, and naturally turned to the Roman Empire for its model." The Pope, the supreme head of this spiritual state, is the ghost of the Emperor, a spiritual Caesar. His name comes from that of the old "Pontifex Maximus," one of the most venerable and ancient of the political religious offices in Rome. "The chair of state, the *sella gestatoria*, in which the Pope is borne aloft, is the ancient palanquin of the Roman nobles, and, of course, of the Roman princes. The red slippers which he wears are the red shoes of the Roman Emperor. The kiss which the faithful imprint on those shoes is the descendant of the kiss first imprinted on the foot of the Emperor Caligula, who introduced it from Persia" (Dean Stanley in "Christian Institutions").

The name and the idea of the "diocese" came from the political divisions of the empire. The orientation of the church buildings is from the ritual of the Etruscan augury, many other church institutions and ceremonials being from the same source. The Roman office of tribune continued to some extent in the bishop, who, when he officiates to-day at an ordination in the Church of St. John Lateran, washes his hands according to the custom at ancient Roman banquets.

The Eucharist, according to Dean Stanley, was originally the daily social meal in which the sacrifice offered is not by the officiating priest, but by the people in the form of contributions from the first fruits of their labors. The vestments of the clergy were all secular in their origin, being simply the fashion common in the Roman Empire in the first three centuries of the Christian era. The same writer mentioned above continues: "The handkerchief with which the Roman gentry wiped their faces came to be regarded in the fifth century as wings of angels, and in the seventh as the yoke of Christian life. Just so have the ponchos and waterproofs of the Roman peasants and laborers come in the nineteenth century to be regarded as emblems of sacrifice, priesthood, real presence, communion with the Universal Church, Christian or ecclesiastical virtues." The close-fitting flannel robe that the Pope wears to-day is but the survival of the "toga," and the cassock was originally a long overall introduced into Rome from France.

The Roman Senate, during the empire, was accustomed to give divine honors to the dead Emperors, and in the same way the Church now canonizes its "saints." The saving of and reverence for relics is inherited from the old Roman ancestors.

The Latin language, now looked upon as the sacred vehicle of divine thought and inspiration as embodied in ecclesiastical rituals and writings, was but the tongue of the vulgar herd of the Roman populace who worshipped day by day in the church building of early times, the building which was the transformed "basilica" or hall of justice of the empire.

The "naves" of our cathedrals of to-day come from the long hall in this building, divided by two rows of columns into a central aisle, with two side passages. The bishop takes his seat on the lofty tribunal of the praetor, and exhorts or commands with a moral power scarcely less strong than the power of the old legal authority.

Thus Rome still lives in a vivid and imperial manner in

the Church of to-day, and not only in the Roman Catholic wing of it, which is looked upon by its followers as embodying some peculiar divine sanction and benediction, but in that of the Protestants as well, who of course evolved many of their institutional forms from the being of the mother Church, the Church of the knight and crusader.

An early and powerful outgrowth of the ideas of universal spiritual and temporal sovereignty held by Rome and afterwards by its successor, the Roman Catholic Church, was the "Holy Roman Empire," which arose during the period 800-963 A.D., and existed for a thousand years in some form or other, and only perished in our own time. Even then it was the inspiration of that empire of to-day, which is the embodiment of an United Germany. This "Holy Empire" was far less an institution than a theory, a doctrine of an universal Christian monarchy. But it can never lose its important place in universal history, for "into it all the life of the ancient world was gathered; out of it all the life of the modern world arose" (Bryce). Thus the Church and this empire were the primary agencies by which the influence of Rome became realized in the life of to-day.

Also, in the field of civil and political institutions Roman ideals have exerted a powerful moulding influence. The Roman constitution was, as we have said above, a mixed form of government embodying at different times during its history a monarchy with some form of strongly centralized democracy. The constitution of England at the present time bears striking resemblances to it both in a modified form of the above, and in the fact, that both leave many points undetermined, and rely largely upon non-legal usages and understandings.

Rome was the mother of states. She taught the Teutons to live in towns, and also taught them the principles of political unity. Prior to their contact with Rome through counter offensive and defensive warfare, which finally ended with the fall of the imperial city, they had been entirely lacking in a knowledge of civil ideas, for their government was mainly tribal and their life little restrained by aught save the laws of military and tribal necessity.

The political Renaissance of Rome, as found in the laws and governments of to-day, is her greatest incarnation. She furnished the ideas on which the modern state is founded. The American Revolution and the subsequent constitution flashed on the world the Roman principles of sovereignty. The French Revolution and Republic realized the Republic of Rome, and Napoleon Bonaparte repeated the earlier transition to imperialism.

We of the United States seldom pause to consider how much of old Rome is embodied in our governments, state and national, municipal and local. James Bryce, in the "American Commonwealth" (Vol. I, pp. 413-5), says, "the state constitution begins with the English trade-guild of the Middle Ages, itself the child of still more ancient corporations, dating back to the days of imperial Rome, and formed under her imperishable law." Other traces of Roman influence are found not only in such institutions as our Senate and Judiciary, but also perhaps we may see in the New England "town-meetings" a survival of the "*comitia curiata*," in which, during the later Republic, the lictors met as representatives of the ancient "*curiae*" and constituted an assembly for the passing of wills and adoptions. The status of the citizens in our Territories of the United States is based on the Roman principle that "a distinction may be drawn between the private rights of citizenship and the public rights, which include the suffrage and eligibility to office" (in the national government).

In Europe, the modern systems of administration and police had their origin in and developed from the Roman institutions, which also supplied the force that finally overthrew the feudal system. The medieval principality, duchy,

and county began with Roman ideas, and afterwards combined to form the modern state, while the free towns were evolved from the Roman township. This latter inheritance, that of the municipal spirit, is one of the greatest heirlooms derived from this generous source. The continuance of municipal institutions can be traced directly in some cities in the south of France from the time of the empire to the beginnings of modern Europe. Our modern municipal system is a direct inheritance from Rome, and John G. Sheppard states ("Fall of Rome," page 8) that it is "the only constitutional system which has outlived the Roman world."

Frederic Harrison sums it all up by saying ("Meaning of History," page 55): "It was the tradition of a Roman Emperor which, by long intermediate steps, transformed the Teutonic chieftain into the modern king or emperor. London, York, Lincoln, Winchester, Gloucester and Chester were Roman cities, and formed then, as they did for the earlier periods of history, the pivots of our national administration. Paris, Rouen, Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, in France; Constance, Basle, Coblenz, Cologne, upon the Rhine; Cadiz, Barcelona, Seville, Toledo, Lisbon, in the Iberian; Genoa, Milan, Verona, Rome, and Naples in the Italian peninsula, were in Roman, as in modern times, the great national centres of their respective countries. Above all else, Rome founded a permanent system of free obedience to the laws on the one hand, and a temperate administration of them on the other; the constant sense of each citizen having his place in a complete whole."

Naturally, when a student of history reads the above, he will wonder what was the specific, innate force that so permeated the Roman institutions that the civil and municipal administrations of modern Europe were the logical outcome. It seems to me that the explanation is Roman Law. In her law and the juridical principles derived therefrom, Rome stands supreme.

Says Mommsen ("History of Rome," Vol. I, page 217): "The greatness of Rome was involved in, and was based upon, the fact that the Roman people ordained for itself and endured a system of law, in which the eternal principles of freedom and of subordination, of property and of legal redress, reigned and still at the present-day reign unadulterated and unmodified."

The barbarians were much impressed with the majesty of this legal system, and the Germans, who had no laws or codes whatever, were for five hundred years under the tutelage of Roman jurisprudence, and their institutions were thoroughly permeated by it, before they gained the ascendancy in Europe and helped to spread its invigorating influence over the then civilized world. Half of the codes of modern Europe are based on the laws of Rome, and the other half has been thoroughly permeated or modified by it. The Visigothic legislation of Spain, founded on the laws of Theodosius, was strongly influenced by it; the "Etablissements" of St. Louis show marked traces of the "Pandects" of Justinian. Looking further, we find the influence of the juriconsults is seen in the whole structure of the German jurisprudence, the "Prussian Gesetzbuch," and the English Common Law. Says Niebuhr in his monumental work on Rome: "The Germans cannot dispense with the Roman codes, since they have not matured that of their ancestors, and have lost its spirit."

The Code Napoléon, much of the Scottish law, and the International Law of to-day are directly based upon the Roman system. I may add that the code of the State of Louisiana is more nearly akin to the latter than that of any other part of the United States, for it is based directly on the Code Napoléon and the legal institutions of the south of Europe.

Rome first, in the time of Caracalla, made citizenship universal, and then backed it up and reinforced it with her own

law. Out of the old right of appeal to the tribune for protection came the opportunity for acquittal according to the juristic system which made of the Emperor a high appellate court, and gradually became transformed into the right of pardon vested in the monarchs and rulers of to-day. The Roman Law, which has been called "the most perfect political creation of the human mind," became the basis of the legal systems of Europe mainly because it has been found suitable in every age to the requirements of all stages of an enlightened civilization.

But again, Rome survives in a more palpable form, in a way that is evident to three-fourths of modern Christendom, that is, in the Latin language, in "the voice of empire and of war" now become the voice of learning, administration, salvation, and faith. All the majesty of the luxuriant ritual of the Roman Catholic Church, all the poetry of its beautiful hymns, all the sanctity of its heart-felt prayers, all of these, expressed in the tongue of imperial Rome, arise to heaven from the hearts of millions of devoted worshippers scattered broadcast over the entire world.

Not alone in spiritual and religious affairs is the Latin virtually existent. It was the language of diplomacy till the latter part of the seventeenth century when French took its place, and it lingered long after in the diplomatic conferences of the German Empire. It was the state language of Hungary till 1825, when Hungarian (or Magyar) was substituted. To-day it is still a medium of communication in learned and scholastic circles.

It is said that three-fourths of the words in the French language, the dominant tongue of continental Europe, are of Latin origin; and Spanish, Italian and Portuguese tell nearly the same story. Nearly half the vocabulary of the Englishman and native-born American is of Latin derivation, the Normans in their conquest of England being the philological bridge by means of which the Roman tongue crossed to amalgamate with the old Saxon dialects, and the school-boy of to-day repeats the same rules of grammar that were taught by the old Roman pedagogues.

Rome has not only given us the fruits of her own life, her own experience, her own thought—she has also unselfishly preserved and directly handed down to us the beauty, the thought, the literature of her sister people, the heroic Hellenes. The Alexandrian Empire carried Greek life to the far East; the Roman Empire bestowed it on the West. Through the agency of Rome "Greek language, literature, poetry, science, and art became the common education of the civilized world, and from the Grampians to the Euphrates, from the Atlas to the Rhine and the Caucasus, for the first and only time in the history of man, Europe, Asia, and Africa formed one political whole. The union of the oriental half, indeed, was mainly external and material, but throughout the western half a common order of ideas prevailed" (Frederic Harrison).

On the other hand, in the stern art of war, Rome furnished the basis for many a modern lesson. Her battles and campaigns were considered by such an high authority as Napoleon as well worthy of study as those of the great captains of modern times. Fabius and Caesar in many particulars outshone Wallenstein and Marlborough, or even the French Emperor himself. The legion and battalion of the old empire are the prototypes of the military organization of to-day.

Gibbon is authority for the statement that the domestic institutions of to-day are the transformation of the public reason of the Romans. We may find many of the peculiar ideas, superstitions, traditions, and customs of old Rome still alive in the life of the modern populace. The ring, the veil, the gifts, the groomsmen and bridesmaids of wedding customs are all Roman in origin, as also the insignia and cus-

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Method and Scope of High School Economics*

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I believe in high school economics. I believe in it because I think that the boy and girl who are to pass on economic questions as voters should be trained in economic reasoning by disinterested teachers before they are called upon to vote. They will get lots of training anyway from self-appointed political instructors—but this isn't worth much. I want to see every voter accustomed to the analysis of economic problems and to the criticism of economic arguments before his decisions have to count.

I don't think I should favor high school economics were all high school graduates destined to the University. The subjects can be better grasped when the pupil is a bit mature and has a considerable range of general information. We do not admit freshmen to our economic courses at the university, and, *a fortiori*, high school students had better wait, if they can. The recorder of the faculties at Berkeley compiled some figures last December which showed that from 25 to 42 per cent. of the men and from 9 to 24 per cent. of the women graduates of our State high schools in the year 1910-11 entered some college or university. The largest percentages were in the Bay Counties and in Southern California, but even along the north coast 28 per cent. of the men and 9 per cent. of the women graduates went to college. These people can wait. But it follows that the majority of students cannot. They must get their economics at the high school if it is to be part of their formal education, and I am confident that it is wise to give it to them there.

I realize, too, that it is difficult and probably unwise to distinguish in the high school between those pupils who are going to college and those who are not. In the smaller schools, with a limited teaching force, it is altogether impossible. But as to this, two things may be said; the course in economics can be given so as to be of a good deal of value even to prospective college students. It should not be in any sense preparatory to college. It should be complete in itself, but it can give a good mental training. And this being true I am inclined to think that the university would extend its list of subjects accepted for matriculation credit to include economics if the demand should become very great. At present we accept courses 20a and 20b, describing them as follows:

20a. Economic Geography. (1½ units.)

Five periods a week for one half-year. Credit will be given only in connection with credit for Subject 12e (physical geography).

Economic Geography should be considered as an aspect of general geography, rather than as a distinct branch of the science. It should include the general principles of mathematical, physical, and biological geography. While including a study of countries, products, trade routes, etc., the chief emphasis of the course should be placed on the relations which exist between the fundamental principles of geography and the economic interests of man.

20b. Commercial and Industrial History. (3 units.)

Credit will be given only in conjunction with credit for Subject 13a (Medieval and Modern History).

This subject should comprise, in broad outline, the development of commercial and industrial activities in the western world. It should discuss such subjects as the economic inheritance from Rome and the East; the gradual renewal of trading after the Teutonic invasions; the revival of commerce under Arab influence; the growth from village to town economy; the Renaissance in Italy and the commercial supremacy of the city republics; the Age of Discovery and the development of economic "nationalities"; the industrial revolution and the conception of international division of labor; modern international trade and its significance, etc., etc. Emphasis should be laid on the interaction of political and economic factors in the growth of Western civilization; on the evolution and decay of economic "institutions"; and on "movements" rather than the facts of any particular period.

If California high schools were to develop courses in economics which were well done, and done by a considerable number of schools, I am inclined to think that they would be recognized. I have not the least authority to promise it, and I am far from sure that I should favor it, but I think it probably would be done. At the present time, in fact, there are four schools from which the general subject "Economics" is accepted as an elective for matriculation credit if completed in the third or fourth year of high school work. Of these schools, I may say, two are now teaching economic geography, one economic history, and one economic geography, principles, and advertising and salesmanship. The leeway allowed them is not therefore of great importance. The university has for some years offered courses in economics in its summer school, and this summer will do what it has not done since I have been connected with it, namely offer a course in the principles of economics designed mainly for teachers.

I propose to take as a text this afternoon the replies to some six or seven hundred letters which I have sent broadcast over the United States. These letters went to all the high schools in California whose applications for accrediting were on file at the University and to the fifteen largest high schools in each State of the Union, except where there were less than fifteen high schools in a State. From California schools I have received 103 replies—from schools outside of California 133. They afford, I think, a rather vivid picture of the present condition of high school instruction in economics, particularly in California.

Now these replies show first of all that economic teaching is pretty wide-spread. Forty-one out of 103 replies from California, or 41 per cent., stated that classes in economics were being conducted. Eighty-one out of the schools outside the State made similar answer, or 62 per cent. The difference is partly due to the fact that the extra-State schools are on the average larger than those written to within the State—a result inevitable from the way my mailing list was prepared, and not in any case easily avoided. And not only is the teaching of economics common, but there is a marked belief that the demand for it will increase. Fifty-four of the schools outside of California so replied to the question put them—34 of them declaring that the increased demand would be in the immediate, 4 that it would be in the distant future, and the rest not specifying; 21 only believed that the demand would not increase, 55 did not reply at all, and 3 were doubtful. In California, out of 41 schools which give economics, 23 believe that the demand for it will increase, 7 think it will not, 2 are doubtful, and 9 do not answer. The conviction that the demand will increase is not confined to the schools which are giving economics. About one-eighth of those schools outside of California which have no economic course and about one-sixth of similar schools in California look forward to an increased demand and in the majority of cases to the introduction of courses in the near future.

These answers were the more surprising to me since no forecast of them was to be found in statistics available at the university. We matriculate something over a thousand students each year. Last year not a single entrant offered any form of economics for matriculation credit, and this year only twenty-three offered this subject. The development of economic instruction is apparently quite recent, and due perhaps to a better appreciation of the possibilities of the study in part, also to the general tendency to widen high school curricula, and to the increasing interest in economic problems among the people at large. We have a chance in California to see that the moving force is *not* a change in the attitude of the university, for the second most popular subject among high schools is the Principles of Economics, for

* Paper read before the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, April 6th, 1912.

which the university ordinarily allows no credit. And it is as little to be explained by an abundance of trained teachers. The greater number of teachers of economics in our high schools have majored in history; some in languages, some in law,—some have taken courses in economics at college and some have had business experience. Only one student has taken her major for a teacher's certificate in economics at the University of California in recent years.

A second general fact that appears from the answers to my queries is that the number of subjects taught remains limited in spite of the growth of the teaching. For convenience of reference I tabulate the subjects offered and the number of schools offering each, separating the figures for California from those for the other States.

Subjects Taught.	Number of Schools Teaching.	
	In California.	In other States.
Commercial Geography	24	50
Principles	18	56
Economic History	9	15
Commercial Law	5	16
Banking	2	1
Industrialism	1	0
Finance	1	1
Advertising and Salesmanship	1	1
Sociology	1	0
General Lectures	1	0

Over 80 per cent. of the courses offered in California and over 86 per cent. of those offered outside were in the fields of Principles, Commercial Geography and Economic History. And since the courses in practically all schools comprise five hours per week of instruction during one term, this means that corresponding percentages of time are devoted to these subjects. The concentration is rather remarkable. At the university we offer courses in some twenty-three distinct subjects, including all those just tabulated, and in addition Accounting, Insurance, Money, Foreign Exchange Statistics, Labor, Corporation Finance, Financial History, Railroads, Crises, Social Reform, and Care of Dependents. Some universities have an even more elaborate program. One would suppose that the natural probabilities would have led to a more scattering choice of subjects by the schools. Probably the fact that the University accepts Commercial Geography and Economic History for matriculation credit has been in part responsible for the introduction of these studies in California, while the study of principles seems naturally to follow. Some tradition as to the nature of the study best adapted to high school work probably also plays its part. Geography and History are matters which may be *learned*, at least as they are apt to be taught to elementary pupils. They are also subjects which may be added to the repertory of teachers trained in History and Geography with less difficulty than subjects like Railroad Economics, Foreign Exchange, Labor or Banking.

Nevertheless, I should be sorry to see the tendency which this indicates submitted to without careful thought in each individual case. I dissent strongly from the belief that there is but a limited range of subjects in economics suitable for high school work. Any field, except the most narrowly technical, may serve to illustrate forcibly the fundamental laws of utility and cost, demand and supply. Any field will afford examples of complex economic phenomena, and may yield practice in methodical analysis. Consider, to illustrate this point, the apparently diverse subjects of bimetallicism and of railroad rates. A bimetallic monetary system implies free coinage and unlimited legal tender power of two metals, usually gold and silver. The possibility of its maintenance depends upon the ability of a country to keep the market values of gold and silver in a given relation to each other; say in the proportion of sixteen ounces of silver to one ounce of gold. These market values can be affected only by varying the supply of gold and silver upon the market. The government can retire gold and put out silver, or it can retire silver and put out gold. In the one case the value of gold

will rise relatively to that of silver, and in the other case it will fall. The ability of a government to affect values depends in practice upon its own supplies of precious metals. If it possesses but little gold it can depress the value of gold but slightly by throwing its holdings upon the market in exchange for silver, and the market value of gold may remain higher than the mint value. In this case no gold but only silver will be brought to the mint for coinage, and the nominal bimetallic system will give way to a currency composed in fact exclusively of silver. If on the other hand the government's supply of gold be sufficient, so large a volume of the gold may be sold and so large a volume of silver bought that the relative market values of the metals may be set at any point which the government may care to fix. Neither gold nor silver will be presented exclusively for coinage, and the currency will be truly bimetallic. The problem is one of supply and demand.

Turn now to the question of railroad rates. The rates which a railroad charges are the source of its income. The more railroads the keener the competition, the lower the rates and the less the income per mile of road. The fewer the railroads the greater the income. But railroads are expensive. They will not be constructed unless a certain minimum income can be anticipated. The fact of this cost limits the supply, and the limitation of the supply prevents earnings and hence value from decreasing below a certain point. We may even push the analysis further. The railroad supplies a great variety of services and charges a great variety of rates. Its services are distinct, its costs are largely joint. Its earnings from all sources must cover its total expenses; the extent to which it will develop any given business will depend upon the rapidity with which the earnings from that business over the specific costs will decline as the supply of facilities for that business is increased. And this is the law of supply and demand again.

I submit that a high school course in economics should do five things:

1. It should describe and make the student familiar with the nature of economic problems.
2. It should make evident the fact that these problems are complex.
3. It should show that nevertheless the problems can be analyzed.
4. It should give practice in analysis and teach methods of attack.
5. It should discuss the broad underlying principles common to all forms of economic activity.

And I may restate my attitude as to choice of studies in high schools by insisting on these propositions, namely:

1. The scope of no single course should be so wide that thorough consideration of some of the problems involved becomes unnecessary.
2. The subjects with which courses deal may be chosen from the whole field of economics.
3. The facts which should govern the choice within this wide field are:
 - a. The facilities for local illustration.
 - b. The equipment of the available teaching force.

I now pass to questions of method, devoting myself in the main to the methods of teaching the principles of economics. *Mutatis mutandis* what I say will apply to other subjects, also.

Let us first notice that few of the classes in economics in this State exceed 30 in attendance. This is important as it shows the possibility of individual work in instruction. My queries to California schools received the following replies:

Enrolment.	Commercial Geography.	Principles.	Economic History.
1-10	7	4	1
11-20	5	3	4
21-30	3	3	2
31-40	0	0	1
41-50	1	0	1
51-60	1	0	0
61-70	1	1	0
Over 70	0	1	0
Not specified	6	6	1
Enrolment.		All.	Principles.
Under 11		12	4
Under 30		32	10
Total reporting		39	12

Outside the State the classes are somewhat larger.

Enrolment.	Commercial Geography.	Principles.	Economic History.
1-10	3	6	4
11-20	12	15	4
21-30	12	14	2
31-40	5	6	0
41-50	2	0	0
51-60	4	1	0
61-70	1	3	1
Over 70	7	5	2
Not specified	5	7	2
Enrolment.		All.	Principles.
Under 11		13	6
Under 30		72	35
Under 40		83	41
Total reporting		109	50

We have previously remarked that eighteen schools in California teach the principles of economics. Nine of these use lectures, the time allotted varying from three lectures out of five periods to the notation "occasional." In one case the first twenty minutes of each hour is devoted to a lecture. Recitations and discussions hold chief place, six of the California schools using them to the complete exclusion of lectures, and relying on text or syllabus for outline material. The same is true of schools outside of California. Of fifty-six schools replying to my questions which teach economics, twenty-eight make no use of lectures, and none use lectures except in a secondary way. For instance, in the Central High School at Philadelphia, where the classes number 100 students each, the first third of the hour is taken for written recitation and answers by the class to questions drawn from the chapter in the text-book assigned for the day. The second third is used by the teacher to reply to questions handed him in writing by members of the class. In the third part of the hour the teacher summarizes the lesson in a way suggested by the questions asked him. I am assured that there is a plenty of questions. Only three, or perhaps four, schools from outside the State state that they occupy in lecture work as much as one-half the time spent in teaching principles. And one of these schools is a continuation school at Gary, Ind., in which the course is an elective in night school, and the conditions somewhat different from ours here.

We use lectures at the University, but it is because we have to, not because we wish to. Something over 400 students enrolled in the elementary courses this year, and probably 300 or 350 will enroll next year. The reduction in numbers will result from a change in the character of the elementary course. We expect a steady growth in the future as we have had it in the past. To conduct the beginning work by recitation and discussion would compel the division of the class into ten or twelve groups of thirty pupils each. There are seven teachers in the department who might be called upon for elementary work. Each would have to take one class, and most of them would be forced to take two. The matter was earnestly debated this year, and it was decided that the abandonment of lectures was inadvisable because it involved so serious a sacrifice of advanced work. As

a compromise a larger number of assistants than usual was engaged for next year, and the course will be taught by means of two lectures a week from the head of the department to the class as a whole, and one hour of discussion conducted by the assistants in small sections under the general supervision of another member of the department. If we had small classes, there would be no question as to the method which we should adopt.

Along with lectures in the high schools are found to some extent short tests. Six schools in California, that is, report the use of five-, ten- or fifteen-minute papers. I doubt, however, that full advantage is taken of this way of encouraging precise and definite thought. The object of the short test is quite distinct from that of the longer reports which some schools employ. The long report teaches the pupil the use of authorities, gives him practice in analyzing problems, and affords an opportunity to express independent judgments. It is too cumbersome to drive home points which the instructor desires to emphasize, and is ineffective in suggesting a variety of practical applications of the principles which the student learns. In college work I have found the short paper of great value. To get the best results the questions should not allow of answers drawn directly from the reading. All the principles involved should have been brought out by the reading or by previous discussion, but the questions themselves should come with a certain freshness.

To illustrate, I quote questions from recent university examination papers, many of which have been used in the weekly work.

On value, classes have been asked:

Would you expect the price of a commodity to fall if its cost of production were lowered? If so, under what conditions, if not, why not? Would you expect the cost of producing a commodity to be lowered if its price fell? If so under what conditions, if not why not?

Trace the effect of an increased demand upon the value of:

1. A pound of rice;
2. A pound of tallow;
3. A pound of silver;
4. A dozen steel knives and forks;
5. A copyrighted book.

On wealth and capital a typical question requires the student to classify a number of articles. Thus:

Are the following wealth: an ocean steamship; a pleasure yacht; a ship on the bottom of the ocean; gold in a mine; a wooden leg; eyesight; a head full of useful knowledge; a waterfall; water. Are these things capital? Why or why not?

On wages we used the classes to explain or criticize the following citation from a report of a recent Secretary of the Navy:

"It is a taking thing to say that \$100,000,000 could be better spent for education or charity; and yet, on the other hand, \$100,000,000 spent in the employment of labor is the very best use for which it can be spent. There is no charity in the interest of the popular welfare or of education so valuable as the employment of labor."

On international trade:

In the year 1908 the exports of merchandise from the United States exceeded the imports by about \$700,000,000. In the same year the imports of gold were about \$148,000,000.

- a. Can such a disparity continue for a long period of years?
- b. So long as it continues, do you regard the situation as favorable for the people of the United States?

We try to get the pupil to see that the principles which he hears and reads about really mean something. If he can be induced to think through them they will become part of his mental property, fit for constant use. If he does not master them in this way the principles will do him very little good. I find it worth while to keep constantly on the lookout for questions in all my reading. Clippings from editorials, extracts from Congressional speeches, official reports, magazine

articles and the like are full of crude economic fallacies and at the same time are thoroughly up to date. I might mention, also, in this connection, a syllabus recently prepared by the Department of Economics at the University of Chicago and obtainable from them at a low price. It is an excellent piece of work, this syllabus. Clear, suggestive, logical, and full of useful questions. I have used it in my own lectures and have referred students to it, and always with good results.

Written work of other kinds may well be combined with the short tests which I have just mentioned. Essays, outlines, bibliographies, and summaries of magazine articles have their use. Needless to say the reading should be carefully selected and articles assigned on both sides of disputed questions. It is no part of instruction in economics to inculcate opinions. On points of theory I should not lay stress on different points of view, especially since most serious writers are very much agreed on the elementary principles; but in applying theory to practical problems such as the tariff, railways, monetary questions and the like, much harm is done by one-sidedness. The pupil should learn, first, that the problems are complex, and second, that they may be analyzed. He should then be given practice in methods of attack. Written work impresses this more than oral, and if not carried to excess need not become tedious.

One of the larger California high schools tells me that it requires the following written work, besides brief tests on reading:

- a. Reports every two weeks covering 40 pages of reading assigned by the teacher.
 - b. Short papers on current events passed in every Friday.
 - c. Theses of from 1,000 to 5,000 words due at the end of the term.
- Last term the best reports were on the following subjects:
1. The Russian Colony.
 2. The street railway system of the city.
 3. The markets.
 4. The (San Pedro) harbor.
 5. Girls as wage-earners in department stores.
 6. The utility of
 - a. Day nurseries.
 - b. Public playgrounds.
 7. The crops of the Imperial Valley.

I do not imagine that these reports brought out much of independent value. The college student is rarely capable of research, and the high school pupil is probably less so. But that is not the point, and the reports have justified themselves when they have accustomed the writers to weigh evidence and to search for the vital facts in the subjects which they attack.

Doubtless in addition to this written work debates in the school or between schools are useful. It is objected that debating encourages one-sidedness. My experience points to the contrary. The student who sees but one side of a case during his preparation is apt to be sadly surprised when the day of discussion comes. Debating, I believe, promotes tolerance. It can also be used to inculcate the spirit of fair play. And best of all, it makes the debater work. There is no set task before a man who is to meet a hostile team. He has to meet a presentation of unknown strength in a field of which he cannot be complete master, under the penalty of personal humiliation if he fails to make a good showing, and with the reward of a personal triumph if he succeeds. The stimuli are very strong. Do not encourage the pupil, however, to write broadcast in search of material. We are in constant receipt at the University of questions from members of debating teams which show a lack of preliminary thought and a willingness to shift the burden of work to other shoulders. Only a few days ago I received a letter asking my opinion of the following—(I quote the substance only):

Resolved, That all controversies to which public service corporations are parties should be subjected to compulsory arbitration.

I was compelled to point out that the term public service corporations could properly be taken to include railroads, street railways, gas, water and electric light companies, wharf, dock, coal and a long list of other companies. These bodies might become involved in controversies with their employees over wages, with their customers over prices, and with their associates over contracts. Nobody would seriously propose the compulsory arbitration of all these things. I might have added that nobody's opinion in such matters could be of much value in a debate. What the writer needed were facts, and it was his task to dig them out for himself. References on specifically named points I should have been glad to give, but it was for him to do the work.

Yet another means of exciting interest in economics is the visit to industrial plants and the visit of business men to classes. I am not disposed to value either very highly, but both have their place. Trips through factories, printing houses, bakeries, sugar refineries, and the like will provide the pupil with some interesting local knowledge, and will help to make him realize the complexity of business organization and the scale on which production in the larger establishments is carried on. One trouble is that the guides are apt to emphasize the spectacular at the expense of the important. I remember taking a college class two years ago through the custom-house at San Francisco. The things which our courteous guide showed us, and the things, to tell the truth, in which the class was most interested, were the strange chemical tests; the appearance of grains of rice under the microscope; the open cases of goods under examination—not the organization of the service, the system of drawbacks, the accuracy of valuations, and the relations between the Washington and the San Francisco authorities. Quite as great difficulties appear when the business man speaks to the class. The Boston High School of Commerce used to lay a great deal of stress on these talks when I lived in Boston three or four years ago. But they found that the business man was too ready to talk generalities to make his instruction of much value. He was too familiar with the details of his work to understand that these details were precisely the things of which his audience knew nothing and of which they desired to learn. Finally, the man in charge adopted the policy of selecting a subject, listing the principal points relating to it which it was desired to have discussed, and then of talking the matter over at length with the prospective speaker. I shall be interested to hear of the success of California schools in this sort of work. Ten out of forty-one teaching economics include visits to industrial plants in their instruction, and an equal number invite outside speakers in. I cannot help suspecting that the chief value of these last-named invitations have lain in their effect in making the speaker interested in the schools rather than in securing information from the speaker for the school. In this, however, I may be wrong. Outside of California twenty-one of the schools which give economics and which replied to my letters provided for visits to industrial plants and fifteen for outside speakers. In some cases a very great deal of emphasis was laid on the former. One school in New York City devotes one hour a week to this work, and another in Springfield, Ohio, sets aside one hour every two weeks.

I have been asked from time to time to recommend textbooks for high school economics. I am loth to do this. The best way to test a book is to teach it, and with the possible exception of Ely's "Outlines of Economics," I have taught no book which I have thought suitable for high school work. One publication which I feel pretty safe in recommending is the syllabus published by the University of Chicago, to which I have referred before. Beyond this, I will merely list for your information the titles of the texts actually in use in the schools of which I have record. These schools

number seventy-six, and the texts which they use and the number of schools using each text are as follows:

Bullock—Elements or Introduction to Economics....	32
Ely and Wicker—Elementary Principles of Economics.	20
Laughlin—Elements of Political Economy.....	5
Ely—Outlines of Economics.....	3
Blackmar—Economics for High Schools.....	3
Seligman—Principles of Economics	1
Seager—Briefer Course	1
Thompson—Political Economy for High Schools.....	1
Walker—Principles	1
Not specified	9
	76

Collateral reading is assigned in a large variety of standard texts, including Taussig and the Ginn series of Selected Readings. I shall be glad to assist to the best of my ability any teachers who may write me concerning usable books in special fields, but to attempt a list of these now is out of the question.

After all, the methods of instruction will vary with the individual teacher, and few general statements can be made to suit all circumstances and all places. I do not personally believe in the lecture as a means of teaching economics. It may have a function in providing a skeleton or outline, but even this can be done by a syllabus or perhaps by a text. Principles expounded by lectures slide from

pupils like water from the proverbial duck's back. Beyond this, I would urge only a few things:

1. Be concrete. If you state an abstract principle, tie it closely to some fact within the pupil's knowledge. You may examine the facts of history and show how principles may be drawn from them, or you may announce your principle and then illustrate and demonstrate it with facts, but keep the two together.

2. Do not insist that there is but one answer to economic problems. Show your pupil the causes for varying answers and the points on which his judgment should exercise itself—and then encourage him to think. He will believe what you tell him anyway, for a while, but when he leaves school your influence will not last longer than your authority unless you make him feel that his conclusions are his own.

3. Do not attempt too much. Your course should train your pupil to handle problems other than those which you discuss. For this you must discuss at least one thing with thoroughness.

If high school instruction in economics be concrete, if it be not dogmatic, and if it be modest in its scope, I am sure that it will be successful in providing that large proportion of boys and girls who end their formal training at the high school with a training which they sorely need. If it have not these characteristics it had best not be attempted at all.

State History in the Public School*

BY PROFESSOR C. ALPHONSO SMITH, UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

We are approaching a new era in our educational campaign. The slogan has hitherto been "More Schools"; it will soon be "Better Text-Books in the Hands of the Pupils." We are on the threshold of changes in our courses of study in the public schools hardly dreamed of ten years ago. What we have considered fundamental subjects are going to be readapted to present-day school needs or eliminated altogether.

The Traditional State History.

For some time I have been reading State histories, and the conviction has grown upon me that they are an outworn inheritance from England. In the traditional English History the reign of the monarch is the chronological unit, and so in our United States Histories we divide by Presidents, and in our State Histories by Governors. The pupil is supposed to memorize both names and dates. Add wars to this list and you have the usual State History. The Governors, in other words, are lined up in single file and the pupil has a word with each as he passes with his teacher down the line from the first to the last. Pauses are made only in the case of wars. Here the gubernatorial stream broadens out into a storm-tossed lake but soon narrows again into the single stream.

Is this history? Will this sort of study ever put the pupil in touch with the great constructive forces that are making and have made every State what it is? The fact is we are living in a democracy but repeating for the school children the formula of a monarchy.

The Remedy.

We must democratize our history, not by lengthening, but by widening and diversifying the record. The traditional history ends where real history should begin. Fifty pages, it seems to me, are enough for the purely narrative part of any State history. This narrative should deal spar-

ingly with names and dates, but it should present interestingly and lucidly the main events from the founding to the present time. This outline, however, at which most histories stop, should be but the real beginning. The pupil learns through this narrative what has been done; he is now to learn how it was done.

The first part may be considered The Result. The second part is The Interpretation of the Result. In the second part he is to learn the significance of the constructive agencies that have determined and conditioned the present status. It is as if the pupil were shown a majestic building. After seeing its imposing outlines his first question is: "How was it built?"

Constructive Forces.

What are these constructive forces? The most important are agriculture, transportation, manufacturing, government, literature, education, religion and representative leadership. These seem to me the natural and necessary headings of the chapters that should follow the narrative introduction. The length of these chapters and the method of treatment would of course be conditioned on the kind of evolution through which the State has gone. But, however modified, these are the forces which have moulded the past of every American State and in which the American places his confident trust for the future. History must correlate these forces with the past and must interpret them in terms of the present. It must give the pupil such a realization of their significance as will make the preceding narrative of his State's development seem not a meaningless tale but the inevitable result of interacting forces. In the case of North Carolina, the recent unparalleled advance along all of these lines and the concurrent efficiency of the State Historical Commission make this method of treatment a practical necessity. No other treatment can make even approximately plain to the pupil or to the outside reader just what North Carolina is to-day and why. Let us glance at these forces in the proposed order of treatment.

*Outline of an address delivered before the Literary and Historical Association of North Carolina, in Raleigh, November 27, 1911.

Agriculture.

No State is making greater comparative progress to-day in agriculture than North Carolina. Even the boys, the captains of the corn brigades, are enthusiastic. Not only have agricultural methods been improved, but the constructive significance of agriculture in the making of a State is being realized as never before. What is needed now is to relate this movement to our past and to put a new conception of agriculture in the home by putting it in the school. The Department of Agriculture sends out bulletins, the good influence of which is limited only by the number of appreciative readers. The time has come to meet these bulletins halfway by preparing a body of intelligent readers in advance. Four-fifths of the inhabitants of North Carolina live in the country. Should not the boys and girls from these homes be made to feel that they are a part of the history of the State? Are they made to feel this in the pages of the political histories that have been written?

The chapter on agriculture would not be filled with statistics, but it would begin with a brief reference to agriculture as a world influence in civilization, and then pass directly to North Carolina. There should be an abundance of illustrations, a discussion of the more epoch-making discoveries and inventions, a clear statement of the nature of the soil and the resultant localization of industries, with a hint of the immense possibilities yet undeveloped. The purpose is not to make professional agriculturalists but enlightened citizens. The emphasis, therefore, should be put upon agriculture as conditioning history. The discussion should be broad, interesting, but elemental, the facts being so stated as to furnish a key to the narrative that has preceded.

Transportation.

The same general treatment would be followed in the chapter on transportation. It would be well to begin with the good roads movement. Is this not constructive? Is it not making history? Does it not contribute to the exchange of ideas and to the facilitation of neighborliness as well as to the increase of commerce? Or one might begin with the proposed Atlantic interior passage from New England to Florida and the Gulf of Mexico. Once touch the constructive imagination of the pupil and you have enriched his civic consciousness. We hear much to-day of the future-minded man. No one doubts his value as a civic asset. But the future-minded man is only the past-minded boy grown up. If the boy is taught to see that the great things all about him are not detached and isolated, but rather the product of influences working silently and convergently through the centuries, influences that he can stimulate or retard, he will be the future-minded man of his generation.

A map of the State, showing the old highways yielding place to railroads or being transformed by macadam, showing also the possibilities of new landways and waterways, would give the pupil a glimpse into the future of the State that he could not obtain from the most elaborate political map. Emerson says that he found roads out West that began broad, then narrowed to a squirrel path, and finally took refuge up a tree. But he must have been journeying backwards. These roads probably began in the tree, passed into a squirrel path, widened into a hog path, swelled into a cow path and graduated into a man path. Road-building does not go backward, and the memory of road-builders should not be allowed to lapse. It was evidently a future-minded man who wrote the inscription on the lone headstone between Hendersonville and Mount Hebron:

"Here lies Solomon Jones,
The Road-maker,
A True Patriot.

He labored fifty years to leave the world better than he found it."

Manufacturing.

"As late as 1810," says President D. H. Hill, in his *Young People's History of North Carolina*, "out of fifteen hundred men present at a military drill, all but forty were dressed in home-spun." There was at that time not a cotton mill in the South. The growth of manufactures in the South since 1810, but especially since 1870, is an epic of absorbing interest. Last year alone more than 100,000 people in North Carolina labored in factories, and the value of their products was more than \$150,000,000.

The transition from the spinning wheel and loom (still seen in remote mountain districts) to the cotton mill, from home-made tobacco to the tobacco factory, and from hand-made furniture to the furniture factory is a transition that has never been adequately treated in our histories. It is a story that is written large over the face of our State but meagerly, if at all, in our school text-books. But a moment's consideration will show that if the study of history in the school-room is meant to be an introduction to the constructive agencies that have touched our life at every point, manufactures, whether by hand or machine, cannot be ignored. The boy or girl who can think through the steps that lead from the raw material to the finished product, and who can relate these steps to the general advance in things of the mind, is a historian in the germ. Such a pupil has learned to interpret facts in terms of forces.

Government.

Not till the pupil has learned the simpler inter-relations of soil, roads and machinery will he be prepared to understand the simpler problems of government. It was just this failure to take into consideration the physical aspects of civilization that made John Locke's Grand Model the joke of North Carolina History.

Civics and agriculture, when studied at all in the public schools, are usually studied apart from history. But are they not necessary to the understanding of history? Even if they are studied both before and after the study of State History, they should also be studied along with and as a part of State History. In North Carolina a beginner's course in agriculture is required in the fifth and sixth grades. The History of North Carolina is taught also in the sixth grade, while civil government is put in the seventh grade. This seems to me an admirable arrangement, provided the significance of agriculture and the significance of good government are made plain in the State History.

As North Carolina is experimenting with the commission form of government for cities the whole subject of civics might well be introduced by calling attention to this new and promising development in the science of self-government. Civics should be taught at least in a human rather than in a formal way, so that the pupil may intelligently think himself through the leading offices of State, county and town. There should be a State government, a county government, and a city government organized from time to time among the pupils. A boy who has played governor, or legislator, or county commissioner, or mayor, or policeman, will have learned that the duties of democratic citizenship need more emphasis than the rights. He will also be enabled to read his State's history with an insight and sympathy impossible before.

Literature.

The history of literature in North Carolina has never been written, but enough is known to warrant the historian in calling attention to our native writers as interpreters and moulders of our history. Two North Carolinians at least, have touched the intellect and heart of the nation in a unique way. Hinton Rowan Helper's book, "The Impending Crisis" (1857) remains the ablest discussion of the economic weakness of slavery that has yet been written. The tone is bitter, but the State cannot afford to omit this man from the roll of its national thinkers. "New England wives," says Helper, "have written the most popular anti-slavery literature of the day. Against this I have nothing to say; it is well enough for women to give the fictions of slavery; men should give the facts." The effect of "The Impending Crisis" on the thought of the nation was hardly less than the effect of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" on the emotions of the nation.

What Helper, of Mocksville, did for the economic argument against slavery O. Henry, of Greensboro, did for the four millions of New York. The one appealed to the head the other to the heart. But both appeals were national and the service of both men should be capitalized in our history for future generations.

I have reference, however, chiefly to North Carolina writers who have found their inspiration in their native soil, writers who have celebrated the scenery or perpetuated the traditions of their own State. Such writers are history-makers and history interpreters. The "Old North State," by Gaston, is the best-known State song in America. Its music and words have done more to bind North Carolinians together in a community of interest and idealism than any other single poem in our literature. It should not only be memorized in every school, but studied as an interpretation of the State spirit at the time when it was written. It is not a final interpretation, but it will stimulate others to attempt a better.

Mrs. Tiernan's "Land of the Sky" (1876) introduced Western North Carolina to the outside world. It did for the region around Asheville a service comparable to that done by Irving's "Rip Van Winkle" and "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" for the neighborhood of Tarrytown-on-the-Hudson. If Burton Egbert Stevenson, in his "Poems of American History" (1908), finds a place for Seymour W. Whiting's poem on "Alamance" and William C. Elam's poem on "The Mecklenburg Declaration," ought not the historians of North Carolina to find a place for them? If these and similar poems belong to American history, do they not belong also to North Carolina history? If the pupil learns nothing more from them than that literature has from the beginning been the conservator and the herald of history he will have learned a truth that will minister to him as long as he lives.

Education and Religion.

These are grouped here for lack of space and not because they should be grouped in our proposed history. There should be separate maps showing the growth of schools and churches, and a clear statement of their necessary interdependence. The growth and influence of the Young Men's Christian Association should also be outlined as well as the growth and influence of school libraries.

The educational history of the State has already been well written; it needs only to be brought up to date, provided with plentiful pictures and skillfully adapted to public school use. The purpose is to make clear not only the phenomenal advance of recent years, but the heroisms of early years and the moulding influence of education upon every phase of our State's activities. It is the merest commonplace to say that churches and schools are both measures and determinants of a State's progress. But as common as the saying is I have found no State history that traces these two construc-

tive forces in their beneficent influence upon the State's destinies. If mentioned they are merely mentioned. It is at least the highest praise that can be given the story of our State to say that it cannot be understood by any one who ignores or underrates the primacy of intellect or morality.

Representative Leaders.

This chapter should complete and unify all that has gone before. But the leaders chosen should be representative of the constructive forces already mentioned. The makers of North Carolina history have been not only civic leaders in the accepted sense, but farmers, road-builders, manufacturers, educators, writers and preachers. The influence of biography on a reader, it must be remembered is measured not merely by the greatness of the life portrayed, but by the similarity of task and environment that the reader is made to feel between himself and the hero. The biography, in other words, must meet the reader half way. It must reveal the same or kindred interests. It must touch his sense of common humanity. When this is done life is reinvested in life. Longfellow's line, "There is no death, what seems so is transition," receives thus a new meaning. The transition is from the past to the present, from service that has been to service that will be.

To select these representative men, to portray the salient features of their life and work, to relate them properly to the varied activities of the State and to the ideals and interests of the pupils in our schools, is to write history that is not only democratic, but dynamic. It is a task calling for disciplined judgment and wide sympathy, but the reward will be greater than the task.

In Conclusion.

History thus written would not fill the pupil's mind with names and figures, but it would deepen and diversify his interests. It would enable him to correlate the present with the past, and to summon both to the service of a larger future. His imagination would be enlarged both by retrospect and prospect. He would realize that history is not conservation but interpretation, that it deals with the past only to make it live on into the present, and with the present only to garner it for the future.

Above all he would realize that his own honest toil, however humble, was a part of the State's progress, that no one man and no one class of men has made, or is making the fabric of statehood, that it is a collective and composite thing on which many brains have pondered and many hands have wrought. And out of this realization there would come that new conception of the State, a conception which has kindled alike the imagination of the poet and the patriotism of the citizen:

"God gave all men all earth to love,
But since our hearts are small,
Ordained for each one spot should prove
Beloved over all;
That, as He watched Creation's birth,
So we, in Godlike mood,
May of our love create our earth
And see that it is good."

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History in the Secondary School

The Use of the Blackboard in the Teaching of History

BY ELDON C. EVANS, ASSISTANT IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

It has long been advocated in educational theory that we should appeal to the visual as well as to the auditory sense of the pupil. Experiments in psychology have proven that some learn chiefly through the organ of sight, and others by means of the organ of hearing. Everyone is taught to repeat this fact in the classes in pedagogy, and to reproduce it on examination. But when the session is over, and the students take up teaching, they usually forget to make use of the good advice given them by their professors. Some have an honest desire to utilize this information, but not knowing just how to go about it, they also soon join the ranks of the backsliders. As a result, in the majority of the high schools, we see no use being made of the blackboard by the history teacher.

THE WRONG USE OF THE BOARD.

However, the mere haphazard employment of the board will not prove of much aid to the student in visualizing his work. I have been in many rooms where the teacher covered the board with figures, letters, dates and names, yet did not accomplish anything except to consume time and space. There was no plan, no organization attempted. There seemed to be no idea of accomplishing anything, and at the end of the lesson the blackboard was a medley of names and dates, and resembled a Chinese puzzle.

A BETTER WAY.

The proper use of the blackboard is not a hard thing to develop. Almost all teachers whose methods are superior have taken advantage of this simple device for helping their students. To deprive them of the assistance of the blackboard would be as great a handicap as the loss of the library. The wonder is that more teachers have not discovered its helpfulness.

One teacher's employment of the blackboard may be just as good, and yet entirely different in some respects from another's method. In every phase of teaching there is room for individuality. While each teacher will have a personal idea of the way the blackboard ought to be used, the following suggestions may be of some advantage to the high-school history teacher:

First, proper names not familiar to the pupils should be written down, especially if they are of foreign names.

Second, the events of importance, as treaties mentioned in the discussion, which the instructor wishes to call special attention to, could be wisely noted in this manner.

Third, a number of topics often are made clearer and more easily understandable by the students if they are illustrated on the board.

Fourth, the object or aim of the recitation and also the advance lesson should always be placed on the blackboard. The principal points taken up under each should be written down as they are given by the pupils. The advance lesson, which the teacher studies with the pupils, should be taken up in more detail. As the facts are developed and their importance discussed, relative to the problem the pupils are trying to solve, they should be so co-ordinated or subordinated that at the end of the lesson the teacher will have the aim worked out logically on the board, much in the same manner that a problem in geometry is first

stated and then step by step the solution reached. The following might be taken as an example of how the blackboard might be used. The lesson is divided into the recitation and advance lesson; the assignment in the regular order would come third, and would grow out of the day's work, in this case, however, it will not be given.

RECITATION.

Aim: to show why the Articles of Confederation failed to provide an adequate government.

I—Nature of the government established:

- (a) A confederation not a nation.
- (b) Relative importance of national and state governments.

II—Why it failed:

- (a) Few powers granted to the central government.
- (b) Lack of ability to enforce laws passed by Congress.
- (c) Votes of nine states necessary to pass any important measure.
- (d) Weakness of the amending power.

III—Reasons for these weaknesses:

- (a) Lack of previous experience to guide the framers of the document.
- (b) Fear of a strong central government becoming too tyrannical.
- (c) Local jealousy.

ADVANCE LESSON.

Problem: to show how the weakness of the Articles of Confederation created a demand for a stronger government.

I—The results of the weakness of the Articles of Confederation:

A—Inability to meet the question of foreign relations—

- (a) Great Britain.
- (b) Spain.

B—Failure to control internal problems—

- (a) Financial.
- (b) Commercial.
- (c) Disputes between the states.

C—The confederated United States appeared to be drifting towards anarchy.

II—Effect of this situation on the people, and, especially, the leaders.

III—Steps leading to the calling of a constitutional convention—the growth of the idea of a stronger government.

- (a) Meeting at Alexandria.
- (b) The Annapolis Conference.
- (c) The calling of the convention for amending the Articles of Confederation.

If the teacher has developed this lesson and has shown the students how the unsatisfactory conditions produced by the failure of the existing government has resulted in a demand for a stronger government, she has produced a need on their part for the work that comes after, the solution of this demand in the shape of a new constitution. In working towards such an end, I am sure she will find the blackboard an excellent aid. It is decidedly worth while.

Social Science Courses for Commercial Students*

BY FRANK P. GOODWIN, WOODWARD HIGH SCHOOL, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

An examination of the new courses in the Cincinnati high schools discloses that each, while contributing in considerable degree to the vocational idea, does not neglect that which develops culture and citizenship. The commercial course, however, measured by this standard is perhaps the most nearly symmetrical of any in which the vocational idea is dominant. Besides the studies which lead directly to vocational efficiency, it contains much that should develop citizenship and furnish the basis for those avocational interests which are a necessary part of every well-rounded character.

I refer particularly to the three years of social sciences included in this course. It is as follows: Modern European History, second year; American History, third year; Civics and Economics, fourth year. Let us take each in turn to determine its character and what it contributes to citizenship and culture and to what extent it may be connected with the vocational motive.

The purpose of Modern European History should be to give the student a body of knowledge and create an interest so that he will be familiar with the great questions of to-day. And by a study of European experiences and a familiarity with the origins of their social and economic questions he will be able to take a broader and better view of those important problems that now are, and for a long time to come, will be of primary importance in American life,—questions all of which the man of affairs should be familiar with if he be successful as a merchant and a citizen.

In preparing such a course we are at once confronted with the fact that the culture and institutions of to-day and many of our great problems have had their beginnings a long way back in the past. Therefore, some familiarity with the life of ancient and medieval times is essential to a real understanding of them. But we cannot add one or two years of history to include the civilization of those times. We cannot, even if desirable, add the much-condemned course, in general history to which we were treated in the days of our youth and which has about gone out of fashion since the Committee of Seven put its seal of disapproval upon it. So there is only one thing left for us to do in order to prevent children from believing that our political, economic and social genesis was in 1492. That is to teach briefly the important contributions to institutional life, of each of the great peoples of ancient and medieval times. For example, we show how Egypt and Chaldea furnished the beginnings of culture in such inventions as the plumb line, the square, the wheel, the pulley, the hoe, the loom; how Palestine contributed ideas of religion and morality; how Phoenicia led in organized commerce and disseminated if not invented the alphabet; how in a large degree we are indebted to Greece for our culture and the beginnings of institutional life and what Shelley meant when he said, "We are all Greeks, our laws, our literature, our religion, our art, have their roots in Greece." Continuing in the course we include such topics as the contribution of Rome to government, law, architecture, and church organization; the gradual civilization of the Teutonic peoples and the part that the monastery and feudalism played in that process; the work of the Crusades in bringing enlightenment to western Europe. We finally close the medieval period with the Italian Renaissance.

In offering such an introduction to modern history we are aware that we render ourselves liable to the charge of heresy based upon the standards of the Committee of Seven. And while not devoting the energy of our pupils to the dreary and profitless task of memorizing facts and dates and the rise and fall of dynasties, we may perhaps be charged with teaching generalizations, the basis of which they cannot possibly examine. While admitting that, we may say in defense that at best any course in history for the secondary schools, however well taught, will have in it some work of this kind. Furthermore, to quote the Committee of Seven, abundant opportunity is given later in the course to so teach history as to lead the pupils "to see how definite facts may be grouped into general facts, and how one condition of things led to another, until they come to a realization of the fact that history deals with dynamics and not statics."

But we are not altogether prepared to admit that such a review of ancient and medieval history as we have outlined need alto-

gether deal with generalizations disconnected with concrete illustrations. Even in the brief time allotted we have found time to make concrete the simple inventions of the Egyptians, the commercial operations of the Phoenicians, a few of the cultural contributions of the Greeks, and even the great ideas of government developed by the Romans. Furthermore, by comparing much of the work of the early monasteries with pioneer life in the Ohio Valley, and by contrasting the economic conditions of feudalism with the economic conditions of to-day, medieval life in the brief time allotted may be made of real interest if not understood in all its phases.

After devoting about ten weeks to this work, we enter upon the period of modern history. A rather rapid survey is made of the period extending from the discovery of America to the French Revolution, completing the work in about seven weeks. Here the work of elimination goes relentlessly on. Much of political, military and religious history that has heretofore consumed valuable time is omitted, while economic and social development receives a greater emphasis than formerly in courses for academic students. Of every fact or movement the question is asked, what does it contribute to an understanding of the institutions of to-day? The causes leading to the discovery of America, the effects of the discovery of America on Spain, the causes of the Reformation, Calvinism and its influences, the effects of the Thirty Years' War on Germany, the economic development of the Netherlands and England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the development of constitutional liberty in England, are some characteristic topics included.

With the beginning of the French Revolution we come to a series of events leading directly to Europe of to-day. So we give that period a more intensive study, devoting the entire second semester to the period extending from 1789 to the present. The Revolution marked the downfall of absolutism and the rise of constitutional liberty in Western Europe; and while it perhaps retarded reform in England, yet the reform movement came in that country in more pronounced form by 1830.

Following the reaction the beginnings of which are marked by the Congress of Vienna, came a series of revolutions extending well into the middle of the nineteenth century; and out of these revolutions came modern France, united Italy, and united Germany. These nations with their burning social and economic questions we are now prepared to study in the light of what we have learned concerning European development.

In the meantime across the Channel there had been going on a series of events which has been termed the Industrial Revolution. Having its rise in England it has extended to the rest of the civilized world and will for all time profoundly affect all peoples who are in any way connected with European civilization. With it are connected the social, economic and political reforms of England. Without it the great socialist and labor movements of Germany would not have occurred. And in our own country the great trust, labor and social problems, are a part of it. It is a far cry from James Watt's steam engine to a strike of woollen mill employes in Lawrence, Massachusetts, and to vocational courses in our local high schools, but the chain of events connecting them is complete.

The final topic in our course of European history relates to the expansion of Europe in the nineteenth century. It is indeed fitting that the work should close with a consideration of how Europe in the nineteenth century has extended her colonial possessions and commerce into Australia, Asia and Africa. The closing topic thus gives an opportunity for the study of most recent colonization and the work of extending world commerce to all parts of the inhabitable world. We here view the completion of the work commenced by Columbus.

The course in American History is not very different from the regular course now offered in the Cincinnati High Schools. Certainly less attention should be given to political history than is given in some high schools so as to emphasize social and economic history. The tariff, banking, monetary questions, transportation, industry and kindred subjects should be given especial emphasis, and local history may be used to advantage in such a course. For example, the course that we contemplate will include the economic development of the Ohio Valley with especial reference to Cincinnati. This is as it should be because in this way are pre-

* Read at the Annual Meeting of Teachers of the Secondary Schools at the University of Cincinnati, March 16th, 1912.

sented in concrete form many of the economic questions that interest persons in commercial life; and such a study will give them a broader view of the business world in which they will soon find themselves. As a matter of course the culmination of this course embraces the important social and economic questions that are to-day attracting the attention of the American people.

These two years of history have given an understanding of the development of contemporary nations and institutions. United Germany now has a meaning which it could not otherwise have; the reason for trusts and labor unions is understood; some idea of the world's commerce and its development on broad lines has been obtained. The student has acquired much of culture, considerable that prepares for citizenship and some that is vocational.

In the course of the work we have studied much of civics and economics and some topics that belong to sociology. In the last year of the course our work will now be classified as civics and economics, but social questions will still find a place although under another title. Especially will we find them in connection with civics.

The ultimate product of the work in civics should be citizenship. It should not be all or chiefly a study of governmental functions. On the contrary it should embrace the whole community relation. And as the interests of the local community more intimately touch the interests of the individual and offer greater opportunities for ethical instruction, so a study of the local community offers greater opportunities for teaching citizenship than civics relating to our national life. Nor should we lose sight of the fact that our students have a definite vocational aim and accordingly emphasize that idea wherever possible. This will call for particular attention to such topics as the relation between the general welfare of the community and business; how business should contribute to the welfare of both the individual engaged in business and those with whom he does business; the dependence of the citizen on the community in business; the responsibility of the citizen to the community in business life; the importance of business life to the well being of the community; the various ways in which the government protects property rights and regulates business; personal rights vs. property rights. Nor should the ethical phases of the labor problem go unnoticed.

Our course in the social sciences is finally completed by a study of economics during the last half of the senior year. We are aware that this subject as a separate branch of study, generally has not found a place in the high school. This is due partly perhaps, to the overcrowded curriculum, partly to the immaturity of high school students, and partly because the high school generally has had no course in the social sciences that prepared students for an understanding of economic principles. In our commercial course, however, none of the reasons need be considered. On the contrary, we believe that economics both for its vocational and cultural value properly belongs to a commercial course for high school students, and that the large amount of economic history and concrete economics which our students have previously had overcomes the other two objections offered.

In addition to the history and civics already outlined, the course includes commercial geography four times per week in the second year. This work in a large degree is a very concrete study of the principles of consumption, production and exchange. For example, the great money producing crops, corn, wheat, cotton, are used as a basis for the study of the locality of production, methods of production, methods and cost of exchange, cost of transportation and manufacture, cost of the finished product, selling price of the producer and cost price to the consumer.

It now remains for us in the last five months of the senior year to organize this rather extensive body of economic facts, to sum up the stages of industrial development and to consider the most important principles relating to how man gains a livelihood to-day. This calls for study of men's economic desires, how men go about the work of production to satisfy those desires, by what means material products are exchanged among men, and how the products of labor are apportioned among the various classes that have united in its production.

But while this course in the social sciences has been prepared especially for commercial students, will it not be just as valuable for students taking other courses than the commercial?

I believe that, wherever possible, a four years' course in history and civics is desirable. But that has found little favor in the Middle West and generally but one year of history is required for graduation. In the Cincinnati high schools, American History is required in five out of nine courses and is optional in two. That is good. If a student can take but one year of history, I believe that he should study the history of his own country. But the trouble is that high schools do not generally have any well organized course in the social sciences and pupils begin the study of American history without training in the method of historical study and with but little knowledge of institutional progress on which the development of American life is based.

For this purpose Ancient and Medieval history will be of considerable value if well taught. By that I mean modernized, connected with the institutional life of to-day. But so long as citizenship and an understanding of contemporary life should be the most important product of the work of the teacher of the social sciences, it appears that Modern European History will prove to be more valuable.

Furthermore, the civics and economics included in this course are as important for the general student or for the student following an industrial course as for the commercial student. Certainly one needs as much guidance in his relation to the community as to the other. And as it hardly can be doubted that a more effective citizenship as well as a more effective business life would result from a better understanding of economic principles, I am inclined to believe that elementary economics will prove of value to all.

In conclusion, permit me to submit the question, What improvements, if any, does the course herein outlined suggest for the social science courses in the secondary schools?

Setting the Problem

BY E. M. VIOLETTE, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KIRKSVILLE, MO.

Successful teaching involves on the part of the teacher, the ability to make clear to his students what they are expected to do in the courses they are pursuing, and to indicate at least some of the goals towards which their study is leading them. In other words, it involves the proper "setting of the problem." Inasmuch as I consider this a very vital matter, I wish to set forth a few things concerning it, which are based upon my experience as a teacher for ten years or more. And, in order that it may be clearer to those who may read this article, as to the character of the students I have been dealing with, I would say that during this time I have had regularly each year one class in history of high school rank and two or three classes of college rank.

I have found that the problems that I have been able to put before my students, divide themselves into two groups: First, those which are to be solved in regular class work; second, those which are to be solved outside of regular class work. The first group is made up of all those questions and topics to which the attention of the entire class is directed and upon which teacher

and students put a common effort; the second group is made up of those questions and topics which are assigned to different members of the class for special investigation, the results of which may or may not be brought before the class. In order that this paper may not be too long I shall confine myself to the first group.

In this group of problems I am able to distinguish three different kinds. There are first, the daily problems, that is those problems that are given to-day for to-morrow's study and solution. Such problems should be set before the students in the clearest possible way. The teacher owes it to himself and to his class to state the next day's work in such a manner that he cannot be misunderstood by students of ordinary understanding at least. That usually means a definite assignment in the text-book or books of reference, or in both. It may sometimes be advisable for the teacher to leave it to his students to find the book or books which contain the information wanted, and then to search around therein until it is found. But in high school work and often in the first two years of college work, it is more generally advisable

for the teacher to cite his students directly to those books that may be used in the preparation of the task assigned, and to the very pages in those books. It not only saves the time of the students, but it frequently saves them from that feeling of desperation that oftentimes comes over them when they discover that the material they have found for themselves is either not enough, or more than they can possibly make use of in the time at their disposal. The teacher is supposed to have gone over the field fairly carefully in advance of his students and should aid them in getting directly at the material, and not leave them to flounder around without adequate direction. Perhaps this plan of giving specific references should not be followed all the time. Doubtless there is much to be gained in occasionally leaving the students to their own devices in finding their material, but the likelihood is that if this becomes the regular rule, the laboriousness of the task upon the part of the students will be increased without sufficient compensation to justify it.

Generally, the daily problem should be set before the students with some explanation as to its nature. This may take the form of an outline in which the main topics are set forth, or it may be by way of a few suggestions as to what is significant in the work or what to look for in the study that is to be made. Whatever explanation is given in advance of the lesson, should not be so full as to anticipate all or most of the ideas that the students would evolve out of their own study and thinking over the lesson. A sure way to deaden the interest of the students in their work, is for the teacher to make the outline so full as to predigest all that is given them.

Sufficient time should be taken at each session of the class to make the daily assignment of work. Some teachers allow themselves the first or the last five minutes for this matter. Perhaps, the best time to make the daily assignments of work is at the close of the hour. But many a teacher has found that the safest plan is to make them at the opening of the hour, so that ample time is assured. If the assignment is put off until the very last, the chances are that the matter will be done hurriedly and thus unsatisfactorily. I have found that the character of the work in hand on a given day will determine for me as to whether I will make the assignment of work for the next day at the beginning of the hour or at the close.

The second class of problems that arise in the study of history consists of those whose solution cannot be reached in one day's work but only after several days. Such problems generally arise when the class begins the study of certain well-defined movements or periods. They can usually be best set before the students by undertaking a general survey of the movement or period before the detailed study is taken up. For example, suppose that the unification of Italy is the movement that is to be studied, and the teacher has reason to believe that the students do not have very much information, if any, on the subject in advance of the study they are about to make. It might be well to start the work by spending the first day in taking a survey of the whole movement, some brief account of the same being used as a basis for this study. At the time this survey is being made, the teacher could very carefully indicate what are the significant factors in this movement, and thus open up the way to the more intensive study that will be made in the following assignments. For example, this survey will reveal that at least Mazzini, Cavour, Garibaldi and Victor Emmanuel were among the men whose work made United Italy possible, and the details of their contributions to that end could be made the object of investigation on the following days. Or the problem could be put in the form of a question or two, and the discussion deferred until the proper point had been reached in the study of this movement.

An example in church history will show how problems may be set in that field. On taking up the Reformation, the teacher may ask the students to be prepared at the end of their study of that movement to discuss the attitude of the different rulers towards the Reformation in their own countries, and in other countries, and the effect of their attitude on the course of the Reformation. Or the teacher may put emphasis on the doctrines of the different leaders and set as the problem the comparison of these different doctrines, with the understanding that the discussion of the matter will be had perhaps at the close of the study of the movement. The advantage of this kind of problem is that the students know some time in advance, what they are to work upon when the study of a given movement or period is to be closed up, and they will naturally become alert to discover material on these special problems as they are doing their regular daily work.

The third kind of problem is that which is placed before the class very early in the course, if not at the very beginning, and which cannot be completely solved until along towards the close of the course. The purpose of such a problem is to direct the attention of the students all through a given course to certain conclusions that are to be reached at the end, and then assist in taking definite steps towards those conclusions as the work proceeds. An example or two will illustrate.

In the course in Medieval and Modern History, the teacher necessarily gives a good deal of attention to church history. If he wishes to increase the interest of his students in this phase of his subject, he will begin his work upon it by way of making some study of the church as it is to-day, especially of the Roman Catholic Church. In doing this, he will likely serve two ends. In the first place if he lives in a Protestant community he will likely find that the information which his students have regarding the Catholic Church is very meagre and distorted, and he can by some study of that church as it is to-day, give to them some very important and much needed information, and perhaps set them right as regards many things about which they had been in error. He thus puts them in a position where they can study intelligently, if not sympathetically, the history of that church. In the second place he can then put before them this problem: "How did the Catholic Church come to be what it is to-day?" After the brief survey of conditions at the present, he can begin the study of the history of the church from the very beginning, and as he brings the class along through its various periods, he can point out how it gradually comes to be what it is to-day. At certain stages he can point out the origin and development of certain practices, customs, and institutions. Take for example the College of Cardinals. The understanding of the history of this institution requires a study of the methods of electing the Pope, prior to the creation of the College of Cardinals by the decree of Nicholas II. in 1059, and the evolution of the Conclave System. The teacher who therefore wishes to make clear the historical reasons for the present method of electing the Pope, will be careful to see that his students know at the outset how the Pope is elected at the present and will then study at different points in the course the various methods of his election, from earliest times to the present. All the while the problem is before the students as to how the present method of electing came to be what it is. Other subjects may be treated similarly with equal success.

In English History, the teacher may find it desirable to develop the historical explanation for the present Cabinet System. If so, he will greatly assist himself in this work by having his students make some study of the present organization of the English government either at the beginning of the course or just after the study of the Norman Conquest, and then develop the subject step by step as the medieval organization unfolds itself and becomes what it is to-day.

Personally, I am fully convinced that one of the chief purposes of history study in the schools and colleges should be to enable the students to understand the times in which they are living; to enable them "to read their newspapers intelligently," as some one has put it. And if this is a legitimate object in history teaching, the teacher will find it much easier to attain it by outlining early in his courses, especially in Medieval and Modern, English, and American History, the conditions as they are at the present in their respective fields, and then setting the problem as to how things came to be what they are to-day.

If this is the conscious object of the teacher he will see to it that many of his daily assignments of work will contribute to the solution of the problems set at the beginning of the course. While in a measure every thing in the past has its part in explaining the present, some things are more important than others in that respect, and no teacher would try to show how every event in the past played its part in the evolution of the present. Hence many of the daily problems in history study are concerned with matters that may be apparently of the moment. And yet the daily problem at many points in the course may be cast in such a way so that its solution may bring the student one step nearer to the solution of the problem of explaining the present.

As a matter of fact, however, the teacher will find it difficult to live up to his original intention of bringing before his students the various stages in the evolution of the present out of the past, especially if he is dealing with the history of institutions. He may frequently find that the material needed for developing the different phases of this evolutionary process will be inadequate or poorly organized for his purposes. But the teacher should always

keep the question before him as to whether the work of to-day will assist his students to see the growth of the present out of the past, and if he thinks it will, he should bend every energy towards directing that day's work so that it will make its contribution to that end. If this is done he will find an additional interest in the daily work that will compensate him fully for the extra effort that it may have cost.

Experience has shown me that the second and third kinds of problems that I have been discussing here may be set before students of high school rank, as well as of college rank. Of course, the problems set before high school students should not be as complicated as those before college students. I have not seen such work tried in the grades and am therefore, not prepared to say whether they would actually work or not; but I am inclined to believe that, should they be attempted, they would not be altogether impossible or undesirable, if cast in a very simplified form.

ROMAN SURVIVALS.

(Continued from Page 171)

toms of funerals and mourning. The "screech-owl," that much dreaded visitor of superstitious rustics, is the evil bird of the Roman peasant. Virgil speaks of the belief in odd numbers. The lucky day is the old "*dies albi*," the unlucky day is the "*dies atri*." Our ears tingle when someone is talking of us, and Roman ears were accustomed to act in the same peculiar manner. The Emperor Vespasian cured by the imperial touch as did the monarchs of Europe in later times. Indeed this custom existed in England till the time of Queen Anne who was the last British sovereign to practice it.

While the Roman supplied the fabric of much of our governmental administration, he also gave us concrete examples of the internal improvements that necessarily must follow in the wake of an efficient government. Thus public roads, canals, bridges, aqueducts, free museums, baths, theatres, libraries, schools, parks (of Greek origin), and other public institutions that make pleasant and healthy the life of our cities and states, are a Roman legacy, as well as elective assemblies, magistrates, police and fire protection, and many agencies by means of which these public works are instituted and made effectual.

Many of our buildings for public and private uses are direct copies of Roman types. The architectural form of our theatre is a combination of the ancient Roman circle, or amphitheatre, and the circle of the old Druids, which was used for sports and exhibitions. The domes of our cathedrals and great edifices are a Roman invention, the Pantheon at Rome being the great and ancient example of this style of architecture.

Also, and by no means of least importance, Rome instituted unity in life, and invented universal history. This alone would be enough to give her a commanding place among ancient peoples apart from her other noble achievements in government, law and administration. The Greek idea embodied thought; the Roman, action; the Greek aspired after a philosophy, the Roman after a law; the Hellenic dreams of an efficient political system were realized in the Roman state. Says Hegel ("Philosophy of History," page 289): "The Roman world was the irresistible power of circumstances to which individuality must bend, chosen for the very purpose of casting the moral units into bonds, as also of collecting all Deities, and all Spirits into the Pantheon of universal dominion, in order to make out of them an abstract universality of power."

Finally, Rome was an overwhelming experience in the life of the world. Its past influence on civilization, on religion, on life, can never be sufficiently appreciated, or its future influence adequately foretold. What it did for the past with the accompanying grandeur of martial show and earthly power and glory, it is doing for the present and will do for the future in a quiet and unobtrusive but no less effective manner. Rome still lives, and is a dominant principle in our civilization.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

The annual report for 1911 of The American Telephone and Telegraph Co., contains an interesting chart showing the growth of the number of subscribers' stations from June first, 1876 to June first, 1912.

The third international congress of Archeologists will meet in Rome from the ninth to the sixteenth of October. The congress will be divided into twelve sections covering as many different phases of archeology.

Dr. J. Salwyn Shapiro, of the College of the City of New York, has an article in "The Independent" for August 29, 1912, upon "A New Electoral System for France," which analyses the bill establishing proportional representation, recently passed by the French Chamber of Deputies.

Professor Frederic L. Paxson has published in the proceedings of The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, 1911, a paper upon "The Admission of the 'Omnibus' States, 1889-1890," in which he points out the development of the great northwest, the movement for the admission of the Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Iowa and Washington, and the congressional history of their admission into the Union.

Professor A. C. Krey has published a valuable paper upon "Suggestions for the Teaching of History and Civics in the High School," in the Bulletin of the University of Texas, for October first, 1911. Mr. Krey gives suggestions concerning teachers' helps, text-books, illustrative material, historical fiction, and lists for school libraries. He has suggestions concerning the assignment of the lesson, the use of an outline, the importance of dates and chronological devices, the effects of geography on history, the use of sources and the proper use to be made of the assigned topic.

A joint committee of the Pennsylvania State Legislature is studying the problem of the corporation and revenue laws of the Commonwealth. It is now collecting data upon the forms, regulations, and taxation of corporations, and the proportion of state revenue for all purposes, gathering this material not only from the state of Pennsylvania, but from other states in the Union and the Federal Government and from other nations. The Committee will be pleased to receive suggestions upon any of these subjects. Correspondence should be sent to Francis Shunk Brown, Esq., 105 Morris Building, Philadelphia.

A very active History Club has been maintained at the State Normal School, at Kirksville, Mo., since the fall of 1906. The club is composed of the Professors of History and Government and certain students who are pursuing with distinction, courses in history and government of college rank.

The student membership is elective and is limited to twenty-five. The club meets every other Saturday during each of the four quarters of the year. The programs have varied in character from year to year, but a study of contemporaneous events of importance has always been a feature of every program. During the summer quarter when a number of students return to school after a season of teaching, pedagogical problems that arise in connection with the teaching of history and government are given considerable attention.

DENVER, COLORADO.

The School of Law of the University of Denver opened September 9. The school announces special history courses which the College of Liberal Arts is installing this year.

The courses will be given at the law school on Monday and Tuesday nights. They are offered in connection with the course on constitutional law and also afford high school students, who cannot attend college, a chance to obtain this training.

Dr. C. E. Chadsey, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Col., has gone to Detroit in a similar capacity.

Mr. William P. Rhodes has been transferred from the Manual Training High School, Denver, to the North Side High School.

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON.

Miss Elizabeth Rowell has resumed her work and position as head of the history department at the Broadway High School, Seattle, Wash., after having spent her leave of absence in study at Columbia University.

Mr. Edgar S. Fleming, acting head of the history department at the Broadway High School, Seattle, for the past year, has been appointed head of the history department in the new Franklin High School which was opened this September.

The new course of study for the Seattle High Schools adopted by the Board of Education last spring raised the minimum requirement in history for graduation from one and one-half to two years.

The committee appointed by Superintendent F. B. Cooper to consider the history course has made a report with suggested outlines for each semester of the history work. Mr. D. J. Lothrop, of the Lincoln High School, was chairman of this committee.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

A profitable meeting of the Committee on Courses of Study of the New England Association, Prof. S. M. Kingsbury of Simmons College, chairman, was held in June. The work of this committee is to consider courses in economics and industrial history for high schools having commercial and industrial courses, and for part-time and trade schools. There were present, besides the chairman and secretary, Professor Metcalf, of Tufts College; Mr. Knight, of the Girls' High School, Boston; Mr. Tirrell, of the High School of Commerce, Boston; Mr. Wells, of the Mechanic Arts School, Boston, and Mr. Kidger, of the Technical High School, Newton, Mass.

The general discussion was followed by the appointment of the following sub-committees: To confer with publishing houses, Mr. Knight; to examine existing text-books, Mr. Wells; to correspond with other associations and teachers, Messrs. Tirrell and Kidger.

The annual fall meeting of the association will be held in Boston in conjunction with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association. The date for the meeting of the New England Association is Saturday, December 28, at 2.30 p.m. The general topic for discussion will probably be, "How to Improve the Equipment of the History Department in Schools and Colleges."

The American Historical Association will publish in October the fifth volume of the series of prize essays, "The Political Activities of the Baptists and Fifth Monarchy Men during the Interregnum," by Louise F. Brown (Adams prize, 1911).

Professor Fred Morrow Fling, of the University of Nebraska, is to deliver at Yale University during the autumn term a course of twelve lectures on the French Revolution.

Professor W. L. Westermann, of the University of Wisconsin, will be on leave of absence during the first half of the present year. His "Story of the Ancient Nations" (Appleton) is a welcome addition to the newer text-books on ancient history.

MAY FIRST CLUB.

The first meeting of the May First Club for the new school year was held in San Francisco, September 7, 1912. The speaker was Mr. F. L. Lipman, vice-president of the Wells-Fargo Nevada National Bank of San Francisco, on the general topic of the value of history to the banker. Mr. Lipman discussed the subject from two view-points, knowledge and training. Regarding the first, the banker pre-eminently must know the past in order to foresee the future. He needs a knowledge of the history of banking. Financial crises disclose the banking errors committed in normal times. He can profit by the experience of the past as to methods of storing and protecting treasure. He must know industrial history in order to foresee the future development of his locality, for inventions, development of transportation, movement of population, etc., change the industrial face of a region, and the banker must anticipate this or run the risk of financial disaster. Examples: Effect of discovery of Cape of Good Hope on caravan trade and Mediterranean cities; future effects of the Panama Canal. The banker must understand the history of money and circulation; e. g., why gold is standard of value to-day (result of centuries of experiment, resulting in the survival of the fittest). He needs to know human nature, past and present. It is hard to name any economic activity of the past that is not of value in the present. Economic laws can be understood only in the light of their history.

Secondly, the study of history calls on the same faculties that the banker has to use in his business, particularly insight and judgment. In guiding and controlling the investment of vast sums of capital, he is called on to pass on the soundness of undertakings that relate to the past and future of large sections of country.

In passing on applicants for banking positions, the school subjects considered most important are, in order, Mathematics, History, English. But in order to rise to the higher and more responsible positions in banking, the knowledge and training afforded by the study of history are of especial value.

The Club elected Professor W. A. Morris, of the University of California as "factotum" to succeed Professor J. N. Bowman, who has gone to the University of Washington.

TEXAS ASSOCIATION.

The Texas History Teachers' Association is one of the strongest of the new associations. It meets annually in connection with the State Teachers' Association, usually during the Christmas vacation. At the meeting held last December, of which Doctor Charles W. Ramsdell was elected Chairman, Mr. J. A. Hill, of the West Texas State Normal College, Vice-President, Miss Bess Hackett, of the Marlin High School, Secretary and Treasurer; over one hundred teachers attended. The meeting resulted in a definite consciousness of the need for improvement in history teaching. A committee of five was appointed to investigate conditions in the state and to report at the next meeting. The committee has drawn up a questionnaire addressed to high school teachers of history in the state asking for information respecting their work. The committee is composed of J. W. Curd, of El Paso; R. G. Hall, of Cleburne; J. A. Hill, of Canyon City; S. H. Moore, of Southwestern University, and A. C. Krey, of the University of Texas, Chairman. The topics upon which information is requested in this questionnaire are as follows:

1. What courses in History are taught in your school?
2. How many courses are required?
3. How much time is devoted to each?
4. What text-books are used?
5. What courses do you teach?
6. How many students are there in each of your classes?
7. What other subjects, if any, do you teach?
8. How long are the recitation periods?
9. Do you require collateral reading of your students? How much? Of what kind? How do you test it?
10. Do you require written reports on topical reading? How often? Of what nature?
11. Do you require the use of a permanent notebook? For what purpose is it used? How do you check the notebook work?
12. Do you use source material? To what extent and in what manner?
13. Do you use illustrative material? Of what kind? In what manner?
14. How much time do you devote to geographical work? In what manner?
15. Do you try to correlate history teaching with work in other branches? By what method?
16. Approximately how many reference books are available for students in each field of history? If over 50 different books, merely state the fact. Are the books in the school library or in the public library?
17. What, if any, books do you use as constant reference books in the various fields of history?
18. What relative value do you assign to class work, and to the final examination as the basis for the student's final grade?
19. What special methods do you use to create interest in the study of history?
20. In what grade do you teach civics? Do you think that it can be better taught with American History, or separate from or partly in connection with American History, or partly separate?
21. What are your greatest difficulties in teaching history at present?
22. How many years have you taught in secondary schools? How long have you occupied your present position? What salary do you receive?
23. Of what state are you a native? How long have you lived in this state?
24. In what schools above the rank of high schools have you studied? What courses in history have you studied at these schools?
25. Do you have time to do any studying in history beyond preparation for the daily assignments? Do you travel or engage in study during the summer? What summer school have you attended?
26. What suggestions would you make for the improvement of the teaching of history?

BOOK REVIEWS

ALFRED E. ZIMMERN. *The Greek Commonwealth*. 448 pages, maps, index. Oxford, Clarendon Press. 1911.

This book by a competent authority puts in the possession of any teacher a mass of entertaining and instructive information about Greece and Greek Life. The author states very truthfully in his preface that, "This book is the result of an attempt to make clear to myself what 5th Century Athens was really like. I have tried to convey my vision in the form of a study of the nature, influence, and inter-action of two great forces,—(Geographic and Economic conditions) in Athenian life." To a large degree he succeeds in doing the same for the reader.

The author takes up in Part I the Geography of Greece and treats it entertainingly and at the same time discusses the Mediterranean Area, its geologic story; the Sea and its determining the real life of the Greeks; the Climate, and its effects upon rivers, transportation, and production; and lastly, the Soil, its determining the scenery of Greece and her daily life. Here the author is delightfully clear, and pleasing too, passing from mountains, rocks, and trees to pastures for goats and kine, and on to the tilled areas for corn, wheat, and oil. Even the honey-bee is not forgotten. Part I, of about 50 pages, is profitable reading even for high school and normal school pupils, and, of course, for all who teach Greek History and Literature. Part II, of about 150 pages, is more prolonged and intricate as the topic "Politics" would insure, but at times quite as interesting. The author traces public opinion from the early family to an analysis of the dawn of Greek citizenship, based on religion, law, self-government, in relation, and how it ended in empire. Although the line of argument is long, it is at times particularly illuminating. Part III is on Economics and is a masterly and exhaustive study of Poverty, Work on the Land, War, Crafts and Workmen, Public and Private Property, Warfare, Money, Foreign Trade, Population, Sea-power, Slaves, Mines and Finance, and closes with a chapter on the Peloponnesian War.

I have indicated what one is likely to find discussed in this valuable book. Since I am writing for teachers, hair-splitting criticism is not in order. There is much to be said for the author's abundant citation from Greek literature to illustrate and prove his points; for his painstaking aim to make plain to modern English speaking peoples the life of the Greeks, and his carefulness to trace out the probable developments of his topic from early to late, though his main picture is of the 5th Century Athens; not only so but he frequently compares the Greek way with our own and often warns us to dispossess our minds of preconceived notions. One reading the book for pleasure will find many delightful bits from rare Greek literature to enjoy, many a stimulating suggestion of a high citizenship and love of "plain living and high thinking," and interesting information all along the way. One reading for a detailed and accurate picture of the development of the Greek Democracy can get it by careful and persistent attention over many pages, for the author never forgets that he wants to make you understand.

The general impression of the book is one of profound knowledge of both Greek literature and the literature of Archaeology, and also of one by a very human teacher who remembers that most of us are but beginners in his subject and need to have our interest refreshed by new wonders. Its helpfulness to all teachers, either for topical reference or general reading, is surely large.

Horace G. Brown.

FORMAN, S. E. *The American Republic*. New York. The Century Co. Pp. xviii, 359. \$1.10.

This book is intended as "a text in civics for high schools, academies, and normal schools," and is much more elementary in character than the book bearing the same title and published by Professor James A. Woodburn several years ago. It is an abridgement of the author's "Advanced Civics," which has been in use in high schools since 1905. The new book is a good, general text, covering the entire relation of the individual to the national, state, and local governments. It includes a discussion of some subjects such as education, charities, and international relations, not always treated in books of this kind. Its distinctive feature, perhaps, is its direct teaching of political morality.

The style is clear and interesting, but not always accurate in matters of detail. Even though published late in 1911, the admission of new states and the enactment of new legislation have

caused some small parts of the book to be out of date. The method of referring to books of reference by number is cumbersome and not very satisfactory. These, however, are minor defects and the book should give good results in the hands of a capable teacher.

Thomas F. Moran.

LEARNED, HENRY BARRETT. *The President's Cabinet, Studies in the Origin, Formation and Structure of an American Institution*. Pp. xii, 461. Yale University Press, 1912.

In the thirteen essays of which this book consists, Dr. Learned presents the structure of the President's Cabinet, reserving for a later work its functions, which he expects to discuss under the general topics, practices and personnel. While the author speaks of the volume as containing a group of studies, and some of the chapters have already appeared as separate essays, the present book is a unified and coherent discussion of a single topic, which is convincingly and agreeably set forth.

Twelve of the chapters deal in succession with the historic significance of the term "cabinet" in England; the basis of the president's cabinet, 1775-1789; the development of the idea of a president's council, 1787-1788; the principal offices in 1789; the creation of the cabinet, 1789-1793; the term "cabinet" in the United States, 1793-1907; the attorney-generalship; the secretaryship of the navy; the postmaster-general; the establishment of the secretaryship of the interior, of agriculture, and of commerce and labor.

In the thirteenth chapter are presented some "conclusions," which deal somewhat more in general with the topics treated in detail in the preceding chapters. Our cabinet is dependent upon that of England for almost nothing except its name; having been created by Washington in response to a demand for a board of qualified assistants and confidential advisers, a demand not at that time definitely formulated or expressed (p. 369). The first seven departments were created solely with a view to relieving the president of some of the burden of administrative duties. The department heads are merely assistants and advisers to the president in contradistinction to the political character of the English cabinet. The remaining two departments were created in answer to a widespread demand, and "marked a notable variation, if not a new phase, of administrative progress and development" (p. 474.) The secretaryship of agriculture was created to advance the development of farming and the education of the farmers; the secretary was never thought of as a political adviser to the president, and his functions are not among those originally attributed to the chief magistrate. Likewise the secretary of commerce and labor is appointed in view of that attitude of government which borders on paternalism. His functions are those of a servant of the people rather than of the president. In fact, the growth of the president's cabinet follows the course of the development of government in the last century as our ideas of the functions of government have expanded and the *laissez faire* theories of the earlier decades have been renounced. While the fundamental purpose of the creation of the later secretaryships may be so clearly differentiated from that of the earlier ones, there has been no departure from resolution to preserve the unity, responsibility and discretion of the head of the administration (p. 379), to whom all the cabinet members are directly responsible. The president is the executive and the cabinet assist and advise him when he wishes assistance or advice.

The scholarship and printing of the book leave nothing to be desired. A number of interesting appendices are added, such as a note on the relation of the attorney-general to private practice. There is a "list of authorities" which may be called a bibliography on the American executive.

Edgar Dawson.

In the latest volume, "St. Bernard and Other Papers" of the Centenary Edition of Theo. Parker's writings can be found valuable material on slavery times in the following essays:—

The Aspect of Slavery in America.
The Effect of Slavery on the American People.
Parker on the Fugitive Slave Law.
Parker in the John Brown Campaign.

The latter, by F. B. Sanborn, a living partner in the drama, contains numerous letters of Brown, Parker, and others to Dr. Howe, Sanborn, T. W. Higginson, et. al., all revealing the intense spirit of those days just before Harper's Ferry. The volume is worth consulting and proves a stimulating review of those times.

LIST OF BOOKS UPON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JULY 27 TO AUGUST 31, 1912.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

- American History and Institutions. In 4 vols. Philadelphia: Home Univ. League, 1011 Chestnut Street. Each \$2.50 net.
- Blount, J. H. The American Occupation of the Philippines, 1898-1912. New York: Putnam. 664 pp. \$4.00 net.
- Brigham, Clarence S., ed. British Royal Proclamations Relating to America, 1603-1783. Boston: Am. Antiq. Soc. 268 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Clayson, Edward. Historical Narratives of Puget Sound. Hood's Canal, 1865-1885. Seattle, Wash.: The Author, 1320 Arcade Way. 106 pp. 50c.
- Crawford, Coe I. A Review of the History of the French Spoliation Claims. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 35 pp.
- Currey, J. Seymour. The Story of Old Fort Dearborn. Chicago: McClurg. 173 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Dale, Edward E. Territorial Acquisitions of the United States. Norman, Okla.: Democrat Topic Company. 53 pp. 35c.
- Faust, Albert B. Das Deutschum in den Vereinigten Staaten. New York: G. E. Stechert. 504 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Kansas: A Cyclopedia of State History. 3 vols. in 4. Chicago: Standard Publishing Company. \$27.50.
- Leslie's Weekly. At the Front with the Army and Navy: A Pictorial History of the Civil and Subsequent Wars. New York: Leslie-Judge Company. 141 pp. \$2.50.
- Lowery, Woodbury. The Lowery Collection: A Descriptive List of Maps of the Spanish Possessions within the Present Limits of the United States, 1502-1820. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 567 pp.
- Madison, James. Famous Original Letter against Nullification. New York: G. D. Smith, 48 Wall Street. 5 pp. \$3.00.
- Morris, Charles. The History of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 326 pp. 75c.
- Paine, Thomas. Common Sense on the Origin and Design of Government in General; together with the American Crisis, 1776-1783. New York: Putnam. 380 pp. \$1.00.
- Pennsylvania Cavalry, Seventeenth Regiment. History of the Seventeenth Regiment, Pennsylvania Cavalry, 1861-1865. Lebanon, Pa.: Sowers Pr. 472 pp. \$2.00.
- Richards, Frederick B. The Black Watch at Ticonderoga. Glen Falls, N. Y.: The Author. 98 pp. Privately printed.
- Shirley, William. Correspondence of William Shirley, Governor of Massachusetts, 1731-1760. In 2 vols. New York: Macmillan. \$5.00 net.
- Siebert, Wilbur H. The Colony of Massachusetts Loyalists at Bristol, England. Boston: Massachusetts Historical Society. 8 pp. Privately printed.
- Virginia State Library. List of Revolutionary Soldiers of Virginia. Richmond, Va.: D. Bottom. 488 pp. \$2.50.
- Wislizenus, F. Adolph, M.D. A Journey to the Rocky Mountains in the Year 1839. St. Louis: Historical Society. 162 pp. \$2.50.

Ancient History.

- Du Pontet, Clement. The Ancient World. New York: Longmans. 388 pp. \$1.20.
- Hogarth, David G. Hittite Problems and the Excavations of Carchemish. New York: Oxford University. 16 pp. 40c. net.
- Johns, Claude H. W. Ancient Assyria. New York: Putnam. 175 pp. 40c. net.

English History.

- Bosworth, George F. East London. West London. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 256, 267 pp. Ea. 45c. net.
- Brown, M. W. Northamptonshire. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 315 pp. 45c. net.
- Clemesha, H. W. A History of Preston in Amounderness. (Manchester University History Pubs.) New York: Longmans. 344 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Ditchfield, Peter H. Oxfordshire. (Cambridge County histories.) New York: Putnam. 218 pp. 45c. net.
- Fletcher, Charles R. L. Teachers' Companion to a School History of England. New York: Oxford University. 64 pp. 35c. net.
- Foster, William. The English Factories in India, 1637-1641; a Calendar of Documents, (etc.). New York: Oxford University. 339 pp. \$4.15 net.
- Jenks, Edward. A Short History of English Law from the Earliest Times. . . . Boston: Little Brown. \$3.00 net.
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- Poole, Reginald Lane. The Exchequer in the Twelfth Century. New York: Oxford University. 195 pp. \$2.15 net.
- Robinson, Frederick P. The Trade of the East India Company from 1709 to 1813. New York: Putnam. 186 pp. (5 pp. bibl.). \$1.10 net.
- Scott, W. R. Joint Stock Companies to 1720. In 3 vols. New York: Putnam. Each \$6.00 net.
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- Walton, Edgar H. The Inner History of the National Convention of South Africa. New York: Longmans. 346 pp. \$3.75 net.

European History.

- Bridges, John H. France under Richelieu and Colbert. New edition. New York: Macmillan. 164 pp. 90c. net.
- Fisher, Hebert A. C. The Republican Tradition in Europe. (Lowell Lectures for 1910.) New York: Putnam. 363 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Mims, Stewart L. Colbert's West India Policy. New Haven: Yale University Press. 385 pp. \$2.00 net.

Medieval History.

- Haddon, Alfred C. The Wanderings of Peoples. New York: Putnam. 124 pp. 40c. net.
- McKillop, A. E. Chronicle of the Popes from St. Peter to Pius X. New York: Macmillan. 487 pp. \$2.50 net.

Miscellaneous.

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- FFoulks, Charles. European Arms and Armour in the University of Oxford. (Catalogue, with notes.) New York: Oxford University. 64 pp. \$6.75 net.
- Lauffer, Berthold. Jade: A Study in Chinese Archaeology and Religion. Chicago: Field Museum. 310 pp. \$5.00 net.
- Stephen, Sir Leslie, and Lee, Sidney L. Dictionary of National Biography. Second supplement. Vol. 1, A to Ey. New York: Macmillan. 649 pp. \$4.25 net.

Biography.

- Skemp, A. R. Francis Bacon. New York: Dodge Pub. 94 pp. 20c. net.
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- McLaughlin, A. C. The Courts, the Constitution, and Parties. Chicago: University of Chicago. 299 pp. \$1.50 net.
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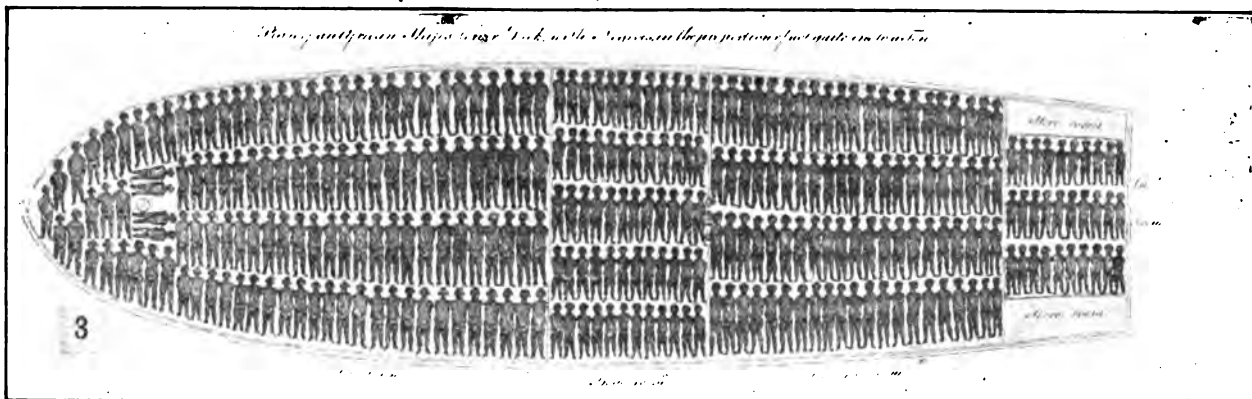
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- No. 1. The title page of an early anti-slavery pamphlet.
 No. 2. The deck of a captured slaver. This picture is taken from a daguerreotype of slave-vessel captured in 1860.
 No. 3. The plan of a slave ship's lower deck, with negroes in the proportion of not quite one to a ton. This arrangement of the cargo was permitted by the English Act of 1788. From an old print.
 No. 4. View from an English traveler's account of the Southern States, showing slave auction in New Orleans.

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Development of the Castle in England and Wales

REPRINTED BY PERMISSION OF THE COUNCIL OF THE [ENGLISH] HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

It is an unfortunate fact that the simplest account of the development of the art of castle-building in England must deal, at the very outset, with matters which are hardly yet beyond the range of controversy. The questions whether the origins of the English castle are to be sought in the private fortifications of Anglo-Saxon thegns, or in the defensive works of Norman knights or barons, has not yet reached a final settlement; and for some time to come, it will be impossible to speak with certainty about the relation which the fortresses raised in the days of the first two Norman kings bear to the earthworks which have descended to the present time from the period which lies beyond 1066.* But although this reservation must undoubtedly be made, it is no less true that such evidence as is at present available in this matter makes with remarkable consistency for the belief that the art of castle-building, in the usual acceptance of the phrase, was introduced into England as a result of the Norman influence which became predominant in the eleventh century. The remarks in regard to this point of Ordericus Vitalis, who finds a main reason for the rapidity of the Norman Conquest of England in the fact that the English had possessed very few of those fortresses which the Normans knew as castles,† are supported both by the recorded progress of castle-building in the country during the reign of William I and by the resemblance in general plan between the earliest Norman castles in England and the remains of contemporary fortifications in Normandy, and it is very significant that the first work of the Conqueror as he passed over his new kingdom was the establishment of castles in all the greater towns of the country, and along all the more important lines of road. Little as we know about the internal history of England during the Conqueror's reign, we can at once compile a list of from fifty to sixty castles built during the twenty years which followed 1066. It is at least evident that William I felt that his hold upon England would never be secure until the land was planted everywhere with castles in the hands of persons whom he could trust, and that it is from his activity in this matter that the great majority of the castles existing at the close of his reign derive their origin.

THE EARLIEST ENGLISH CASTLES.

The Norman origin of the English castle is only rendered the more evident by the existence of a small but remarkable group of such fortresses known to have been built before the coming of the Conqueror. In Herefordshire, a considerable number of Norman settlers had been established before the year 1050, and three of the castles which they founded before 1066 to the disgust of the country side can be identified at the present day. The castle which they built at Hereford itself is likely to have been the strongest of the group; but a portion of its bailey is all that now remains of its defences, and its fame in history is less than that which attaches to the fortress raised by Richard, the son of Scrob, in the northeastern angle of the county. Owing in part

to the exaggerated respect formerly paid to the forcible language in which the compiler of the Laud manuscript of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle expresses his disapproval of the Herefordshire castle-men, in part to the erroneous view which assigned to these early fortresses much greater solidity of structure than ever belonged to them in fact,‡ Richard's Castle has acquired a sinister reputation which is not borne out by the actual evidence relating to the history of this elementary earthwork. The third castle of the series, Ewias Harold, at the southern entrance of the Golden Valley, is chiefly interesting in that its name perpetuates the memory of the son of the Norman Earl of Hereford, Ralf of Mantes, the Confessor's nephew. At the other end of the country there is a distinct probability that Clavering Castle, in Essex, was the work of Swegen, the native sheriff of that shire; and if we may trust the contemporary accounts of the negotiations which passed between William of Normandy and Harold, son of Godwine, at the time of the latter's famous oath, the castle had already been built at Dover which was in being when the Norman army marched to that town after the capture of Romney in 1066. All the castles which have just been named were built after the pattern subsequently adopted by the first generation of Norman settlers—a pattern which will shortly be described—and were regarded as unwelcome innovations by the native chroniclers of the period, in this respect no doubt reflecting the general opinion of the country. But it may be remarked in passing, that if the instinctive conservatism of the average Anglo-Saxon thegn had only permitted his imitation of these foreign models of defensive work, the permanent reduction of England would certainly not have been accomplished within five years of the battle of Hastings.

ANGLO-SAXON FORTIFICATION.

The existence of this little group of fortresses hardly affects the general accuracy of the statement that the first phase of the art of castellation in England belongs to the years which immediately followed 1066. But it must at once be admitted that from a remote period of their history the Anglo-Saxons had recognized the necessity of founding fortified posts in the land. Their practice in this respect has left abundant traces on the surface of English local nomenclature among the numerous place-names which end in the familiar terminals borough or bury.§ It is even possible, though all the evidence makes in the opposite direction, that

† The section in Professor Freeman's "Norman Conquest" (II, 136-8), headed, in the Contents, "Outrages of the Normans in Herefordshire," is largely responsible for these ideas. In 1868, the erection of stone castles of the keep and base-court type, was greatly antedated; and Professor Freeman's remarks on "the tall, square, massive, donjon of the Normans" are highly anachronistic when applied to the English fortresses of 1051.

§ It may be noted that "borough" commonly represents the nominative, and "bury" the dative—*byrig*—of the O. E. *burh*, a fort or stronghold. The primitive character of these works may be gathered from the famous interpolation in the Old English Chronicle under the year 547, to the effect that Ida of Northumbria "built Bamburgh (*Bebban burh*), it was first enclosed with a hedge, and afterwards with a stone wall."

* See references in Bibliographical Note.

† "Historia Ecclesiastica," Ed. Le Prévost, II, 184.

here and there, on the eve of the Conquest, a wealthy thegn may have raised for himself a fortress after the Norman plan;* that, for example, the remarkable earthworks at Laxton in Nottinghamshire may possibly have been thrown up by Tochi the son of Outi, lord of the manor in 1066, rather than by Geoffrey Alselin, its Domesday owner or his successors. But the number of cases in which this may conceivably have happened is exceedingly small; and the private defences of the Anglo-Saxon period, in so far as we know them, were but rudimentary affairs. Eddlesborough or Bucklebury can hardly have been more than a line of hedge or palisading drawn round the farm-steadings of Eadwulf or Burghild; and even those fortresses which were intended to protect the country at large against an invader were elementary in design and simple in construction. The normal plan of an Anglo-Saxon borough, an imitation of the defences with which the Romans had surrounded the more important settlements, civil and military, which they founded in Britain, merely implied the enclosure of a rectangular area with a rampart and external ditch, such as may be seen in perfection at Wallingford; and the strongest towns of the period were those in which, as in the cases of Lincoln, Chester, and York, the remains of Roman masonry composed, or had been incorporated into, the borough wall. The weakness of this arrangement lay in the fact that when the town was attacked, its defenders were in general too few to man the entire round of the ramparts. It is one of the vexed questions of later Anglo-Saxon history whether, in the early tenth century, when the attempt was made to provide the country at large with a series of defensible posts, recognition of this danger led to the erection of fortresses comparable in area with the castles of the Norman period. The evidence in relation to this point is conflicting; for the contemporary section of the Anglo-Saxon chronicle, in recording the activities of Edward the Elder and Ethelflaed of Mercia in the building of *burhs*, says little as to the nature of these works, which can only be inferred, at best, from the dubious evidence supplied by their existing remains. At Stamford and Bedford it seems certain that Edward's work consisted in the foundation and enclosure of new boroughs to the south of the rivers upon which those places respectively stand; at Worcester he appears to have fortified an ancient borough with a stone wall; at Maldon and Witham, the remains of wide, rectangular enclosures, surrounded with earthen ramparts, suggests that he followed the plan and scale of the boroughs of an earlier age even when his work was not determined by any relation to an existing town. On the other hand, it seems probable that the two *burhs* at Nottingham were merely forts commanding the bridge between them which spanned the Trent at this point; and at Towcester and Bakewell, existing mounds of earth with no obvious indications of external works, have been thought to represent the results of Edward's fortifications at these places. But whatever may have been the exact nature of his works, and they probably varied between place and place, they rapidly lost their significance as factors in a general scheme of national defence. When William the Conqueror landed, the walled town was the only type of fortress with which he had to deal; and except in the solitary case of Exeter, its reduction would appear to have given him but little difficulty.

THE MOTTE AND BAILEY.

If we may form conclusions from the existing remains of such defensive works as may be referred to the eleventh century, a remarkable uniformity of plan underlies the great

majority of the earliest Norman castles in England. The type to which they conform—a type now commonly known from its distinctive features as that of the motte and bailey—is of frequent occurrence among the castles of Normandy; and it was reproduced on an extensive scale both during the Norman occupation of South Wales in the early years of the twelfth century, in Scotland under David I and his successors, and in the course of the conquest of Ireland a generation later.† The main features of the type may here, for the sake of brevity, be reduced to two; in the first place, a mound of earth, with a ditch surrounding it and a wooden palisade crowning it; in the second place, and below the mound, a base-court or bailey, encircled with its own ditch, rampart and stockade, and separated from the mound by the former. At the summit of the mound there would be a dwelling-place of some kind—in most cases apparently a wooden tower—in which the lord of the castle resided; within the bailey would stand the stables and domestic buildings. Of the latter, for obvious reasons, only the scantiest of traces are discernible at the present day, but that wood and not stone was the material commonly employed in the castles of the Conqueror's reign is proved by abundant evidence. The almost universal absence of any masonry which can reasonably be referred to the eleventh century is of itself highly significant, and the literary evidence points in the same direction. The real strength of the castle lay in the height of its mound and the depth of its ditch; the nature of the buildings contained within it was a matter of quite inferior importance.

Earthworks of this type are distributed over the whole of England and Wales, although the number contained within a given county bears no obvious relation either to its area or to its geographical position. It is natural enough that the shires along the Welsh border should be thickly planted with such earthworks, of which Herefordshire contains thirty-two, but it is more remarkable that the type should be illustrated by numerous and highly developed examples in the eastern counties, in regard to which the necessity for frontier defence did not arise. Nor can we readily find a reason for the fact that between these districts there occurs an area in which the type is much more sparsely represented; Leicestershire contains four certain examples, Nottinghamshire, five. One is on safer ground in asserting that an earthwork of the motte and bailey pattern will normally be found in any place which was the *caput* of a feudal honor, and that the seats of the more important mesne tenants of the eleventh century will not infrequently be distinguished in the same way. At Tutbury, Pontefract, Eye, Dunster, Cainhoe (Bedfordshire), Wigmore, Dudley, Tickhill, Belvoir, Tamworth, Berkhamstead, Laxton (Notts), the *capita* of the Domesday fiefs of Henry de Ferrers, Ilbert de Lacy, Robert Malet, William de Moion, Nigel de Albini, Ralf de Mortimer, William the son of Ansculf, Roger de Bulli, Robert de Toden, Robert "Dispensator," Robert Count of Mortain, and Geoffrey Alselin, a motte and bailey in each case marks the site of the lord's residence, even when, as at Laxton, there is no reason to suspect that buildings of stone were ever added to its defence. Sometimes, as at Tutbury and Belvoir, the building of the castle was followed, in accordance with Continental ideas, by the development of a new borough in front of its walls, and by the foundation of a religious house in its neighborhood; but in many cases, the centre of the honor was fixed in one of the ancient shire towns of the land, and William Peverel, Hugh de Grentemaisnil, and Henry de Beaumont seem each to have fixed their chief residence in the castles which they respectively held for the king in the boroughs of Nottingham, Leicester, and Warwick.

* The sentence from Ordericus Vitalis to which reference has already been made points in this direction. Its tenor suggests that its author was referring to castles in native hands, not to Norman fortresses such as those in Herefordshire.

† See Orpen in Eng. Hist. Rev. XXI., 417. A detailed investigation of the mottes of South Wales is much to be desired.

Among the hundreds of such fortifications which survive in a reasonable state of preservation a rigid uniformity of design could not be expected to prevail, although the main features of the type are in fact reproduced with general consistency amid the most diverse of local conditions. It is in regard to the number and disposition of the baileys, and in their relation to the castle mound, that variations were commonly made upon the simple type. Where more than one bailey occurs in a single castle, the second bailey will generally extend beyond the first on the face remote from the mound, as at Ongar, Essex; less frequently, both baileys, with a ditch between them, will abut upon the mound as at Newtown, Montgomery, and in a small group of castles, to which Nottingham, Arundel, and Windsor belong, the mound occupies the centre of the whole fortification.* In the latter case, however, it is a reasonable inference that one or more of the baileys represents a later addition to the original fortress, since the normal position of the mound on the outer edge of the defences was undoubtedly felt to be of value in giving to its defenders, in the last resort, a means of egress to the open country. In regard to the more important English castles, it is generally possible to establish a rough correspondence between the several parts of the fortress as they have descended to the present day and the statements in chronicles or records relating to the progress of building operations on the site; and the result, save in the rarest instances, is to leave the mound with its external bailey as the nucleus around which defensive works of greater elaboration have been grouped by later designers.

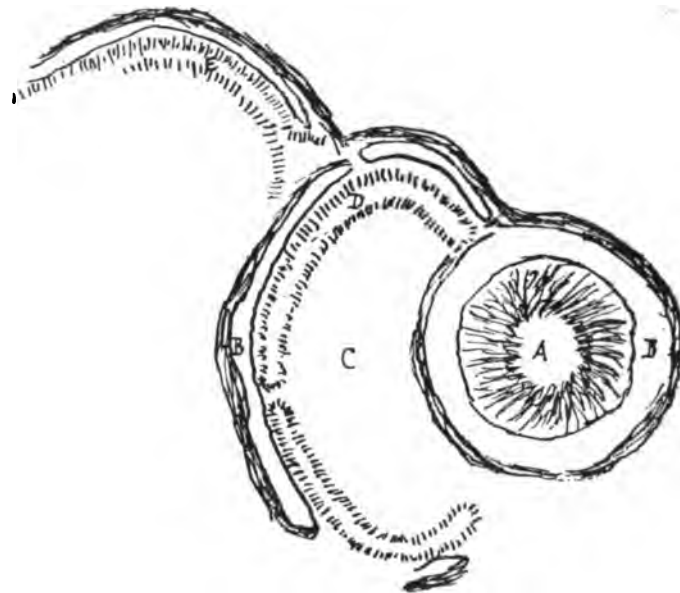
The nature of the sites on which these early castles were planted varied indefinitely in different cases. Many a site which would be recommended by its inaccessibility would be held unsuitable for lack of water, while, on the other hand, in the days before gunpowder, it was immaterial that a castle should be overlooked by higher ground near it so long as that ground lay beyond arrowshot. In general, there is a strong tendency for an early castle to stand immediately against some river or stream, one side of the defences thus being impregnable from the outset. When a castle was built in order to command a town, it will nearly always be found to stand on the borough walls, or just outside them; and as most towns are built on rivers, the castle will commonly stand at the point where the wall and river defences of the town coincide. This is the case at Oxford, Cambridge, Wallingford, Bedford, Chester, York, Warwick, Stamford, Hereford, Leicester, and Shrewsbury, to name a few examples. Stafford and Lincoln are exceptions; resulting, in the latter case, from the fact that the town wall itself was drawn along the face of the hill at a considerable distance from the river below, in the former case, apparently, from the wish to command the important road which led from Shrewsbury to the Midlands. The motive which planted the castle on the edge of the borough defences was evidently the wish to facilitate communication, in case of siege, with a relieving army, combined with a recognition of the danger which would follow from the firing of adjacent houses by an enemy. No single principle determined the sites of the more numerous castles which arose in the open country—it can only be said that the advantage of obtaining a view over as extensive a tract of country as possible was undoubtedly felt and acted upon in numerous instances. Belvoir Castle, overlooking the lowlands of south Nottinghamshire; Rockingham Castle, dominating the Welland Valley; Richard's Castle, near Ludlow, commanding the whole northeastern corner of Herefordshire, are cases in point. The castle-builders of the eleventh century were keenly alive to the facts of local geography.

* See plans of Windsor in *Vict. Hist. Berkshire* I, and of Nottingham in Clark, "Medieval Military Architecture."

It is not difficult to understand the reasons which caused this type of fortress to be so widely adopted by the conquerors of England. It was cheap in the building, and when built it could be defended adequately by a very small body of men. The Norman baron who wished to erect a castle had only to capture a sufficient number of rustics and make them dig. Then, too, the speed with which these primitive castles could be thrown up was an important consideration. In 1068, in the course of a campaign which only lasted a month or two, William the Conqueror founded the castles of Warwick, Nottingham, York, Lincoln, Huntingdon, and Cambridge, with, probably, those of Leicester and Stamford as well. In 1069, a second castle was built in York, the mound of which, known as the Baile Hill, still survives, and the building of which took eight days. Even at this early date, on bare hill-sides where stone was more plentiful than earth or timber, stone towers may have been built at the outset, but the possible examples are few and uncertain.

ONGAR, ESSEX.

Founded on V.C.H. Essex I. 297.



(A) Motte. (B) Moat. (C) Inner Bailey. (D) Rampart to carry Stockade. (E) Rampart of Outer Bailey.

The rectangular towers of Peak Castle and Clitheroe stand upon sites of this character which were already fortified in 1085; but neither of these towers is as early as the Conqueror's reign, and that of Peak Castle is a representative example of the square keeps of the twelfth century. A stone keep might well take a year or more in the building, it was very expensive, and it demanded labor of a more highly skilled sort than was at the service of the average baron under ordinary circumstances. Then, too, it was highly important that the castle should only present a very small frontage to an attack. When we remember that in 1086 the total number of knights in England probably amounted to something under 5,000, and that trained and efficient men-at-arms were relatively few, it will appear that the average castle could not have been constructed so as to require a large force for its defence. We certainly must not endow the conquerors of England with anything approaching the resources of men and money possessed by their sons and grandsons.

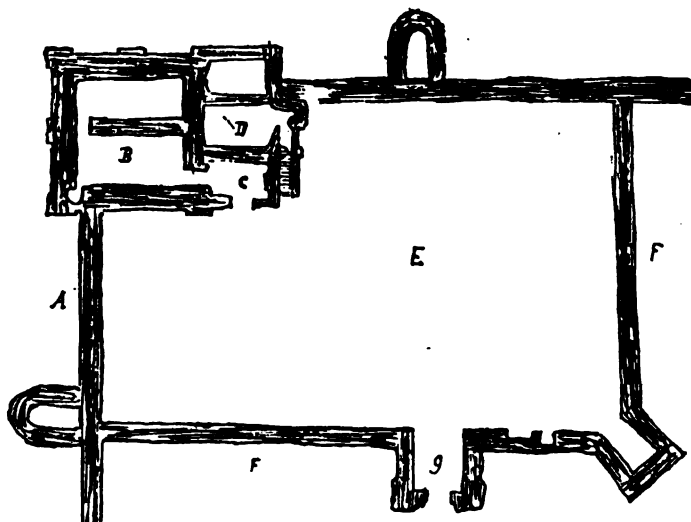
THE SHELL KEEP.

It was quite certain, however, that as the Norman baronage became more firmly settled in the country and times became quieter, the consequent leisure would permit improvements in the art of fortification; and the most obvious of these developments was clearly the substitution of stone for wood in the buildings of the castle. The stockade which had originally surrounded the crest of the mound would be replaced by a stone wall, and stone buildings would gradually arise upon its inner face. To a structure of this kind archaeologists have given the name of a shell keep; a ring of wall, polygonal or circular, enclosing an open space. As it is highly unsafe to erect heavy stone buildings on made ground, such as the crest of an earthen *motte*, some considerable time had commonly to pass before this improvement was brought about; but by the end of the twelfth century it had already been reached in numerous instances. Among surviving castles, Lincoln, Carisbrooke, and Totnes had already developed shell keeps before 1154; Arundel, Berkeley,

PORCHESTER CASTLE, HAMPSHIRE,

After V.C.H. Hants III. 156.

(Buildings later than Twelfth Century ignored.)



(A) Line of Roman Wall—produced to include Outer Ward. (B) Keep on Mound. (C) Chapel. (D) Forebuilding and Stairway. (E) Inner Ward. (F) Twelfth Century wall of Inner Ward. (G) Gatehouse.

and Windsor reached this stage before the close of the century, and similar defences were added to other castles of the motte and bailey type until at least the reign of Edward III, to which period the shells of Durham and Lewes have been referred. In the meantime, a stone wall was generally substituted for the original palisade which ran along the scarp of the bailey; and domestic buildings, of which a fine, though late, series exists, for example, at Dudley, were erected within its limits. The entrance to the castle, which always gave immediate access to the bailey or ward rather than to the motte, was commonly fortified with stone at an early date; and stone bridges and stairways came to replace the planks and ladders which had formerly crossed the moats, and led from the bailey to the summit of the mound. On the other hand, it should be noted that the appearance of stonework on the line of the bailey may well, in any given case, be antecedent to the erection of masonry on the motte; at Bedford there was a stone tower on the bailey before the shell keep was planted on the motte, and while there are now no traces of any building upon the ill-compacted soil of the

motte at Stamford, the remains of a chapel of the thirteenth century exist upon the inner face of the castle wall. This reservation does not affect the general course of development followed by the mound and court castle, but it is remarkable that in many instances no signs of masonry are now to be discovered anywhere within the precincts of fortresses which remained positions of military importance for an extended period. Full allowance must be made in this connection for processes of destruction in modern times; processes which, for example, have denuded the motte and bailey of Fotheringhay of every trace of the buildings within which the tragedy of 1587 was enacted, but it cannot be doubted that the original wooden tower and stockade frequently sufficed for the accommodation of the lord of the castle so long as he continued to fix his residence there.

RECTANGULAR KEEPS.

Such was, in outline, the later development of many of the earthen defences raised in haste by the first generation of the Norman settlers in England, the castles of the period 1066-1100. But from the death of William I onwards through the twelfth century, rapidity of construction was no longer a matter of supreme importance in the building of a castle. The native English were becoming reconciled to the Norman rule, and save for the years of anarchy under Stephen the central government was, in general, strong enough to keep the peace of the realm. Accordingly Anglo-Norman barons of the second generation, in founding their castles, will generally build them of stone from the beginning;* and the plan which they adopted was that which has come to be regarded as the typical form of a Norman castle in England—the square tower, with a walled enclosure appended to it. The square tower had been employed in French fortifications at least twenty years before the Norman Conquest; but its introduction into England was slowly accomplished, and the “White Tower” of London and the keep of Colchester are the only examples certainly anterior to the death of William I. Now the component parts of such a typical castle, the tower and the enclosure, though almost universally found in combination, represent distinct stages in the art of fortification. The enclosure corresponding to the bailey of the older type of castle—the *castellum*, strictly so called—derives in the last resort from the rectangular *castra* of Roman times; it represents a reproduction, on a smaller scale, of the normal defences which surrounded the towns of the Anglo-Saxon period. The tower or “keep” is a device of medieval invention, appropriate to the new conditions of society which rose with the development of the feudal system. Accordingly, it will not infrequently be found that within a single fortress the tower and enclosure beneath it came into being at different dates. Sometimes, as at London, and probably at Bristol, the original fortress consisted of the tower; more frequently, as at Rochester and New castle, the tower was added to a pre-existing ward. At Ludlow, recent excavations show the existing rectangular keep to have been developed from the gate-house of the original enclosure. But by the second quarter of the twelfth century the normal castle had come to include both features, and the original distinction between them was already by way of being forgotten.†

* At Lincoln, Porchester, and Pevensey, adjacent remains of Roman masonry were turned to account in the original construction of the castles in question. The first and last of these belong to the motte and bailey type; Pevensey was founded in 1066, Lincoln in 1068. At Porchester and Pevensey the whole *enceinte* is composed of Roman walling.

† See Round, “Geoffrey de Mandeville,” Appendix “Tower and Castle,” pp. 328-346.

In connection with castles of this type, the main feature is the fact that their strength depended almost entirely upon the facilities which they afforded for an extended period of passive defence. Their walls are, in general, enormously thick; a feature due in great part to the inferior quality of the mortar used by their builders, but allowing the passages required for internal communication to run within the wall itself; and the structure is in most cases further strengthened by flat buttresses. A series of rectangular slits in the thickness of the wall would commonly suffice for windows, though at an early date, round-headed openings such as are found in ecclesiastical buildings of the eleventh century were occasionally introduced into the upper stories of the keep. The only entrance to the keep was usually fixed on the first floor, access being given to it at first by a ladder or open staircase as at Guildford, but in later times by a fore-building, such as is well seen, for example, in the tower of Newcastle. A well was commonly sunk through the foundations of the keep, though at times, as at Ludlow, the well head appears within the fortifications of the inner ward; the roof of the tower was usually crowned with battlements. With regard to the disposition of the several rooms comprised within the keep there is the greatest variety between different castles. A store room, a hall, a private chamber for the lord of the castle, are fairly constant features; not infrequently, as at London, Guildford, Colchester, and Newcastle, a chapel or oratory also is included; but in the course of years there was a tendency to erect chapel, hall, guard-rooms, domestic offices, and other buildings required for the life of the castle in time of peace, within the limits of the adjacent ward rather than in the keep itself. In time of war, the garrison would concentrate their efforts upon the defence of the keep, and for so long as their provisions held out the chances of the event were wholly in their favour. It was always difficult, and frequently impossible, for a besieging host to undermine an opposing fortress; mine could be met by countermine, and a tower which stood upon rock was invulnerable from beneath. A stone wall twelve feet thick, such as composed the keep of many castles of the twelfth century, was fairly proof against the rudimentary siege engines of the time, and a direct assault was in general out of the question. Reduction by famine was the only certain means which could be employed against such a fortress, and the patience of a feudal host was commonly too small for an effective blockade to be sustained for a sufficient period. In relation to contemporary methods of attack, and for purposes of a purely passive defence, the perfected Norman keep was a structure most admirably adapted to the ends which it was designed to serve.

The obvious advantages of a solid keep led in a number of cases to its addition to the defensive works of castles originally built after the pattern of the motte and bailey. At Gloucester, the keep, now vanished, seems to have stood in the middle of the bailey, probably enlarged for the purpose; at Newcastle, it certainly occupied a site distinct from the original motte. At Guildford, and at Clun in Shropshire, a rectangular keep was placed upon the motte itself; a retaining wall at Guildford converting the remainder of the summit of the motte into a middle ward, while at Clun there exist the remains of a shell keep upon the motte in addition to the rectangular tower. At Nottingham, there is evidence to show that a square tower of the early thirteenth century was placed upon the motte; but in general this plan was rarely adopted, owing, no doubt, to the fact that the artificial mound afforded an insecure foundation for the tremendous weight of a rectangular keep. In the two great royal castles of Kent, at Canterbury and Rochester, a new site, apparently outside the limits of the original bailey, was chosen for the square towers built there in the twelfth century. At Oxford, the place of a keep seems to have been supplied by

the remarkable tower, of early Norman date, which dominates the river face of the bailey wall. But at Shrewsbury and York, until the thirteenth century, the king was content with wooden towers upon the crest of the respective mottes, when the tower of Shrewsbury appears to have collapsed of its own accord, and that of York was blown down by the wind.

The general difficulty of determining the exact date at which rectangular keeps were erected in English castles gives especial importance to the case of Bridgenorth on the Severn, in regard to which we possess the necessary information. In 1102 Robert of Bellême, Earl of Shrewsbury, in preparation for his revolt against Henry I., abandoned the fortress of the motte and bailey pattern which he possessed at Quatford on the left bank of the river, and proceeded to build a new castle of stone upon the strong peninsular site where the town of Bridgenorth now stands. The work was done in haste, but the keep of the new fortress has survived in the massive rectangular tower which, severely damaged at the time of the Civil War, may with accuracy be assigned to the year 1102. It was probably in consequence of the intrinsic strength of the new work that Robert of Bellême, when war broke out, entrusted its defence to three of his knights in command of a force of eighty mercenaries, choosing himself to defend the weaker castle of Shrewsbury in person. Upon the king's advance the castle was cut off from external support, a counter-work was erected against it, and it was assaulted with siege engines. The besiegers possessed an overwhelming superiority in numbers, but even so, the siege lasted for a month, and the castle was only surrendered at last against the will of the mercenary portion of the garrison, through the defection of the knights in command, who were intimidated by the king's threats and by a sense of their own numerical inferiority. It is significant that Robert of Bellême declined to stand a siege in the motte and bailey earthwork of Shrewsbury.

In view of the defensive strength of the new rectangular keeps it was always a matter of policy for a strong king to insist that his license should be obtained before any one of his barons raised a private fortress. Under a weak ruler, the work of castle-building invariably passed beyond the royal control. And so, during the eighteen years in which King Stephen contested his crown with the Empress Matilda, the number of castles built was greater than in any previous period of equal length. In most cases it is impossible to tell whether these unlicensed castles belonged to the mound and base-court type or whether they were fortified with square towers and stone walls; but the ease with which great numbers of them were dismantled in a few months when Henry II. had restored order suggests that for the most part they were rudimentary structures; and we know on unexceptionable authority that they were largely built by forced, and therefore presumably unskilled, labour. For the most part they would seem to have been demolished before written record had been made of their existence; and if any traces of them survived to the present day, they must be sought among the many scattered earthworks of the mound and court type for which no definite origin can be assigned. So far as our knowledge goes, the "adulterine" castles of Stephen's day mark a relapse from the methods of fortification practised in the time of Henry I., and have no place in the general development of the art of castle-building in England.

At this date, then, the most highly developed form of castle in the country consisted of a square, solid keep, commanding a walled enclosure. The keep was the cardinal point of the whole fortress; the enclosure might well fall into an enemy's hands without materially endangering the security of the defenders of the tower. The strength of such

a fortress was, as we have seen, wholly passive; it could not be taken without the expenditure of a wholly disproportionate amount of time and labour,* but its defenders could do but little actively towards the discomfiture of their besiegers. It was consequently impossible for a garrison to do anything of itself to force the abandonment of a siege. It was this fact which was the essential weakness of the Norman castle; it was a valuable precaution against an English rising or a Scotch raid, but its garrison could inflict little harm on an enemy. The development of the castle into something effective as a base for an offensive strategy was inevitable; but in England its accomplishment was late in comparison with the similar process occurring on the continent.

It would be an error to regard the remarkable change which came over the methods of English fortification in the early thirteenth century as a sudden revolution, unconnected with what had gone before. Despite the general conservatism of English castle builders, there are not wanting signs to show that some time before the close of the twelfth century they were gradually working their way towards fortifications of greater elaboration than had sufficed in the times of Henry I. or Stephen. A twelfth century castle of the type of Conisboro', in which the outline of the defensive works was defined with accuracy according to the lie of the land, shows that a change in the type of the English castle was already imminent. Architects were ceasing to rely for strength upon mere solidity of structure, and were endeavouring by greater intricacy of ground-plan to make compensation for the abandonment of the impregnable defences of the keep. Fortification, in fact, was becoming somewhat of a science, replacing the empirical methods which had prevailed in the past.

THE CYLINDRICAL KEEP.

To this time of transition may probably be assigned the introduction into English castles of a new type of defensive work, the cylindrical tower, sometimes known as the *juilet* or *donjon*. Rarely attaining in England the development which it reached, for example, in such a French fortress as Coucy, the cylindrical tower was recommended to builders on account of its combination of solidity with economy in material, and remains a remarkable feature of thirteenth century fortification. Skenfrith Castle in Monmouthshire consists of a single ward, in shape an irregular quadrilateral, enclosing such a tower, 40 feet high, 36 feet in diameter, and with walls 7 feet in thickness. More remarkable as an illustration of the type is the donjon of Pembroke, 75 feet high, its unbuttressed walls, pierced with narrow loopholes, resembling in thickness the square keeps of an earlier age, its roof formed by a solid cone of masonry. But the greatest work of the kind in England is the keep of Conisboro', which probably dates from the very close of the twelfth century. Upon the line of the curtain wall there rises a cylindrical tower, 90 feet high, its walls, 14 feet thick, supported by six deep buttresses, its entrance, on the level of the first floor, reached by an external stairway. The basement is vaulted; and the tower contains a chapel or oratory ornamented with the architectural details characteristic of the period. The passive strength of such a tower

was at least as great as that possessed by any of the rectangular keeps built earlier in the century; like them it formed a base, if need arose, for the final stand of the garrison. But the donjon, its strength notwithstanding, was rarely introduced into an English or Welsh castle of the first class.

The characteristic features of thirteenth century fortification receive, in this country, their fullest expression in the great castles built to command the Snowdon range by Edward I. In Normandy, a century earlier, they had been carried into effect by Richard I. in his great work of Chateau Gaillard. The essential principles which underlie the construction of these new fortresses may, with some sacrifice of detail, be reduced to two. In the first place, the plan of the castle follows, and is determined by, the contour of the ground on which it is placed. Instead of reproducing the type of the motte and bailey, or of the keep and base-court, with little regard to the details of the local situation, the builders of the thirteenth century planned their castles with the utmost care so as to make the fullest use of whatever advantage the ground might present. As a result, the ground-plans of these new fortifications are hardly ever identical in any two instances, and it is therefore impossible to do more than indicate the prevailing types to which the individual castles approximate in greater or less degree.

But when due allowance has been made on the score of these variations of plan, the second principle active in thirteenth century fortification still remains evident—the idea of opposing a series of defences to an attack, expressed in the adoption, where expedient, of a concentric disposition of the several wards of the castle. The sketch which is annexed here is intended to indicate the rough outline of an ideal concentric castle; it may serve to show the nature of the change from the rudimentary structures of the keep and base-court type, although in actual fact the concentric outline was only attained through many intermediate stages, and in England at least, is rarely carried out in perfection. We have here a series of three enclosures, or three wards, no two of which are bounded at any point by the same line of wall. As in practice the walls increased in height as one passed from the outer to the inner ward, each ward in turn was commanded by the one which lay within it, and the defenders of the castle had by no means a hopeless task before them, even when the outer and middle wards had been stormed. The gates of each ward were narrow openings, each commanded by its own pair of towers; and the gates themselves were so arranged that even when one of them had been carried by assault, the enemy were compelled to pass under the fire of the garrison for some distance before they could attack the entrance to the next ward. Such a fortress was, in fact, equal to three castles in one, and its capture became almost impossible so long as the garrison were adequately supported by an army in the field outside. The failure of provisions, or treachery among the garrison, were the most frequent reasons for the rare collapse of the defensive.

In matters of detail, the most notable advance marked by the new castles of the thirteenth century was made in relation to the structure of the castle walls. In the older castles, the garrison could not command the ground immediately at the foot of the castle wall except by dropping missiles upon it. In the new type of castle, long stretches of bare wall, and angles pointing to the interior of the structure were alike avoided; and the wall of each ward was set with towers placed so as to afford a lateral fire upon the men who were attacking it at any single point. It was deliberately attempted to prevent any portion of the wall of any ward from exposure to an attack which could not be met by a transverse fire, and in every castle built after the period we have reached, whether it conforms to the concentric type or not, we shall find the mural tower a prominent feature.

* A besieging general, at this period, would commonly begin operations by entrenching his troops in a series of counterworks, placed so as to command the means of egress from the castle before him. This method was already adopted by William I when Duke of Normandy in the sieges of Domfront (1048), and Arques (1054), it was followed by William II at Bamburgh (1095) by Henry I at Arundel and Bridgenorth (1101), by Stephen at Castle Cary, and Harptree (1138), Ludlow (1139), and Wallingford (1139-40), and by Richard de Lacy at Huntingdon (1174). The introduction of the rectangular keep does not seem to have produced any immediate effect upon the methods of siegecraft.

To the same period also belongs the introduction into England of those mural defences upon which the names of brattices and machicolations have been conferred, devices already adopted in France in the previous century. A soldier leaning over the top of a wall to discharge missiles at an enemy underneath became an obvious target for the enemies' arrows and slings. Accordingly a plan was introduced by which the defenders of a castle, while still able to annoy the enemy, would be sheltered from the latter's weapons. A series of stones was removed from a line near the summit of the wall, wooden posts were built into the resulting holes, and a line of planks was laid upon them, this line being perforated at intervals so as to admit of missiles being sent through the floor upon the enemy beneath. A roof was erected over the whole structure, or *brattice*, of which the most serious defects were the inflammable nature of its materials and its liability to gradual decay under exposure to the weather. The *machicolation* results from the brattice by the simple substitution of stone for wood in its construction; and mural defences of this kind were commonly erected in stone from the outset in castles built after the middle of the thirteenth century.

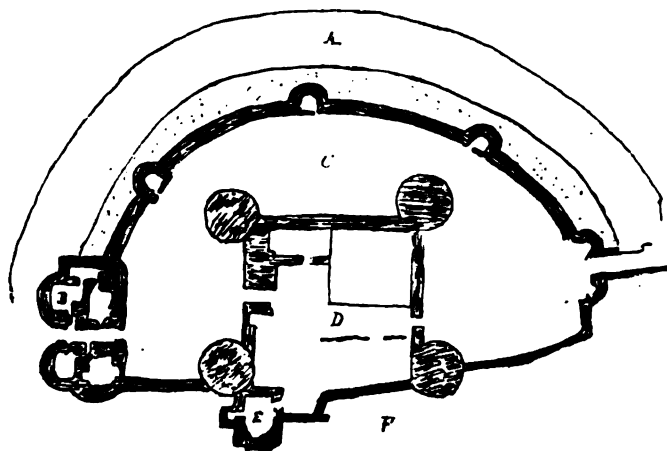
The three castles in the British Isles which are most strictly built on concentric lines are the Tower of London, Beaumaris in Anglesea, and Caerphilly in Glamorganshire. The concentric outline of the Tower of London results from the addition of later enclosing wards to an eleventh-century rectangular keep; it is a remarkable illustration of the manner in which an early Norman fortress might be developed into a perfect example of the thirteenth century type. Beaumaris consists of two wards only; the outer wall an almost regular octagon, with towers at each angle, and in the centre of each face, except in the quarter fronting the main entrance; the inner ward, a square, enclosed with a wall of great height, strengthened with towers of extreme solidity and crowned with battlements. Caerphilly, erected by Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, about 1270, from the standpoint of general design, is perhaps the strongest fortress in the country—it occupied an island in the middle of an artificial lake, and is accessible only by a narrow causeway starting from its eastern and western shores. Whitecastle (Mon.) is an early example of approximation to the concentric model. But perhaps a more fully typical example of thirteenth century methods of castle-building occurs at Kidwelly on the shores of Carmarthen bay. Kidwelly castle, which was founded by Payn de Chaworth within a few years of 1250, stands on the right bank of the river Gwendraeth, at this point a wide stream affording valuable protection to the eastern face of the defences. The whole plan of the castle was determined by the security of its river front, which is composed of a single line of wall, of no remarkable height or strength. This line of wall, in relation to the outline of the whole castle, forms the chord of a semicircle, of which the bounding wall, on the side remote from the river, is set with mural towers and is protected by a deep moat. The entrance to the castle, situated near to its south-eastern angle, is formed by a massive gateway, three stories high, strengthened with towers at each corner, and containing guard-rooms and storehouses, built of excellent masonry. This gateway gives immediate access to the outer ward of the castle, which surrounds on three sides the rectangular inner ward, the central point of the whole fortification. The fourth side of the latter coincides throughout its entire length with the central portion of the river face of the outer ward; a departure from the strictly concentric form of ground plan which is evidently occasioned by the natural strength of the eastern front of the castle. Each angle of the inner ward, within which lay hall, chapel, and domestic buildings, was protected with the large circular towers characteristic of the period,

and the whole castle is an early and successful example of the fortress of the thirteenth-century type.

It will be evident that a castle of the concentric type is most likely to be found in the middle of a stretch of open country, where all sides of the castle are equally exposed to attack. A castle built on the edge of a precipice will only need a single line of wall on the side which overlooks the precipice.* A good illustration of this fact, and incidentally an interesting comparison between the methods of fortification practised in the eleventh and thirteenth centuries, is afforded by the two castles of Montgomery. The fortress which is commonly known as Montgomery Castle stands on a narrow tongue of land, protected by a steep descent on three sides. Along this tongue of land are arranged four wards, each one separated from the next by a broad ditch cut in the solid rock. The first ward, looking towards the only point from which an attack could possibly be made, and the second ward, stand on virtually the same level; the third ward is distinctly lower than the others, and could hardly have been defended when the second ward had fallen. On the other hand, the fourth ward is no less distinctly the highest of the whole series; it stands on the very edge of the cliff, and the position of an enemy in the low third ward would have been tenable only with great difficulty under the missiles of the garrison in the fourth. Montgomery Castle then is obviously planned with a careful eye to the nature of the ground, but this is hardly its main interest. In Domesday Book we are told of a castle built at this place by Roger de Montgomery the first earl of Shrewsbury. Until recently it has been supposed that this was identical with the fortress which we have been

KIDWELLY CASTLE, CARMARTHEN.

After Clark, *Medieval Military Architecture*.



(A) Moat. (B) Gatehouse. (C) Outer Ward. (D) Inner Ward. (E) Chapel. (F) Slope to River.

considering—"the second seat of the power of Earl Roger," says Professor Freeman, "was no less than the fortress of William Peverel in the Peakland, a simple vulture's nest upon a crag." But we can now see that a fortress of this type, so admirably suited to the ground on which it is built, and so costly in the building, is quite unlike the elementary castles run up by the companions of the Conqueror. And in the immediate neighbourhood of Montgomery, more than a mile from the castle on the hill, and in the low land on the bank of the Severn, there stands a simple earthwork of the motte and bailey pattern,† which is undoubtedly the

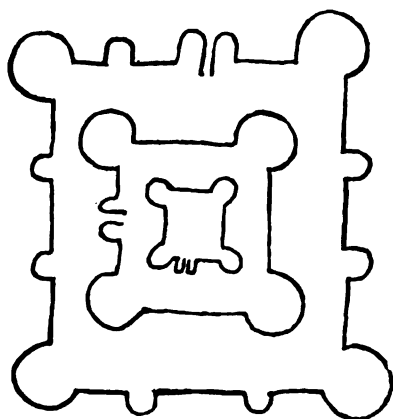
* Carreg Cennen Castle, on the edge of a precipitous cliff in south Carmarthenshire, built in the thirteenth century by Rhys of Wales, illustrates this arrangement.

† The significance of this earthwork, known locally as the Hen Domen, was pointed out by Mr. Davies Pryce, *Eng. Hist. Rev.*, XX, 709, 710.

humble fortress of the Conqueror's friend; the castle which was demolished by the Welsh in the rising of 1095. The Earl of Shrewsbury chose a site where a castle could be raised with the least possible expenditure of time and labour; long before he had cut the first ward out of the rock on the top of Montgomery hill, the Welsh would have been upon him. He wished for temporary security and nothing more.† And so, just as at Wallingford we can compare the fortress of the time of Alfred with those erected by William I., at Montgomery we can measure the advance in the art of fortification between the time of the Conqueror, and that of Henry III.‡

The conquest of Gwynedd by Edward I. was rendered permanent by the establishment of a ring of castles at the base of the group of mountains of which Snowdon is the chief. Aberconway and Carnarvon, on sites previously unfortified, Criccieth, and Harlech, replacing earlier Welsh

THE "CONCENTRIC" OUTLINE.



strongholds, are the most famous of these fortresses, and it is in them that the art of castle-building reaches its highest point in this country. The skill with which they are designed in connection with the ground on which they stand, the excellence of their masonry, and the strategical sense which planted each castle at exactly the points which enabled it to command the widest possible area, are beyond all praise. But although the Edwardian fortresses of Wales, as regards the purpose and circumstances of their erection, form by themselves a well-defined group; there is little in common between the several ground plans on which they are respectively based. Beaumaris is purely concentric. Harlech and Rhuddlan approximate to the concentric outline as demanded by the contour of the ground; and it is no doubt significant that these three castles were each the work of the same builder, James of St. George. It may well be in conscious opposition to his ideas of castellation that Aberconway and Carnarvon were founded upon a different plan. The former consists of an irregular oblong area, divided into two wards by a line of wall drawn across its narrowest portion; the whole of Carnarvon Castle forms but a single ward, built, in accordance with the lie of the land, in a form resembling an hourglass, but in each case the defences of the town, being continuous with those of the castle, made of the former a kind of outer wards. The peculiar strength

of Carnarvon Castle lay in the structure of its walls; within which, upon the face most exposed to an attack, a double gallery was constructed, commanding through loopholes the ground in front of the castle, and surmounted by a rampart, the whole defence admitting of a simultaneous triple fire upon an enemy advancing from this quarter. At Carnarvon, as in every other of the group to which it belongs, the walls were thickly set with mural towers; for the security of the Edwardian castle depended upon the strength and disposition of its walls, and in none of the great fortresses of North Wales was any keep ever constructed. Adopting the language of the twelfth century, we may say that the *castellum*, the enclosure, had come to supplant the *turris*, the keep, as the essential factor in castellation.

The activities of the age of Edward I. in the matter of castle-building were not confined to North Wales. At Corfe, Chepstow and Pevensey, there remain additions made during his reign to the defensive works of the eleventh century. At Builth, a twelfth-century motte and bailey have been converted into a castle of the concentric type by the addition of a circular rampart enclosing the whole of the earlier fortification and by the erection of further defences upon the motte. Elsewhere in this quarter, there is evidence of a desire to modify fortresses of the older type in accordance with the ideas of the thirteenth century. At Bronllys near Talgarth the motte has been crowned with a cylindrical tower of the type which has already been described. At the castle of Tretower near Crickhowell, a tower of this kind was inserted within the remains of an older rectangular keep, and it would seem that at Builth a donjon was placed upon the motte within the shell keep of the thirteenth century. But these Edwardian additions are only brought forward here in illustration of the last phase of the art of castellation in this country.

For from the end of the thirteenth century onwards, the castle steadily tends to become even a less important factor in the military organization of the country. Except in the extreme north where the constant imminence of border raids produced, in the peel towers of this district, and long maintained, a form of defensive work resembling the rectangular keeps of an earlier age, few new castles were built, and those that existed tended to fall into neglect. In 1337 Edward III. ordered his castellans of North and South Wales to put all their fortresses into a defensible condition; in 1341 the king was told that the doors of Criccieth Castle were so feeble that they could scarcely hold up against the wind. It is this neglect, rather than any improvement in methods of siegecraft, which accounts for the remarkable contrast between the course of events in the Baron's War, which largely turned upon the defence of such fortresses as Kenilworth and Rochester, and the details of the revolt of 1322, when the castles of Tutbury, Leeds (Kent), and Tickhill severally fell without any protracted resistance in the course of a brief campaign. The changed significance of the castle is one of the main facts which distinguish the history of the fourteenth century from that of its predecessors.

The suppression of militant feudalism represents one aspect of the process by which this change was effected. As a menace to the integrity of the realm and the authority of the crown, the baronial castle was already an anachronism when Edward I. died. The establishment of the universal jurisdiction of the king's courts, the strict inquisition into feudal franchises, the legislative activities, which distinguish the reign of Edward I., are only the more obvious signs of a permanent order, a general obedience to law, incompatible with the maintenance of strongholds in which a subject could resist the sovereign. On the other hand, it is evident that this result was greatly furthered by the changes which were coming over the art of war at this time, changes which everywhere tended to give the military advantage to the side which could put into the field, and handle effec-

† The converse process, by which a hill fortress became abandoned for a valley site is illustrated by the rise of Conway at the expense of Deganwy.

‡ At Rhuddlan a motte, undoubtedly representing the castle held in 1086 by Robert of Rhuddlan of the Earl of Chester, stands a short distance to the south of the Edwardian fortress.

tively, the largest masses of men-at-arms. The development, under Edward I., of an infantry combining supreme efficiency in missile tactics with complete independence from the system of the feudal levy, gave to the king, the best paymaster, an advantage hardly shared by any of his individual barons.

The final passing of the medieval castle as a dominant fact in war, is generally ascribed to the introduction of gunpowder and the rise of an effective artillery. If the period between 1450 and 1650 be regarded as a whole, such a view is, no doubt, correct, otherwise it requires somewhat material qualification. The decay of the castle had already gone far by 1450. The country south of the border shires had long enjoyed immunity from civil war, and when in Wales a national rising unexpectedly broke out under Owen Glyndwr, it found the castles of the central valleys and the south ill prepared for extended resistance. To this, in great part, is due the rapidity with which Owen was enabled to reduce fortresses planned for the domination of extensive tracts of land. On the other hand, when at last in the Wars of the Roses artillery is found employed against the walls of an ancient castle, its efficiency is seen to be dependent upon somewhat stringent conditions. The reduction of Bamburgh and Dunstanburgh by the aid of artillery in 1465 merely shows that where cannon could be posted within short range of a fortress unsupported by an army in the field its capture would thereby be facilitated. It had no bearing upon the defensive power of a castle under circumstances where these conditions did not prevail. The protracted resistance of Harlech in the campaign of 1474 may be set against the fall of Bamburgh. And in the early stages of the great Civil War, when once again the ancient castles of England became the centres of military operations, their capacity for resistance was still very considerable. The first phase of the war was materially affected by the fact that the defences of Nottingham Castle, though weakened by a century of neglect, closed to the royal armies the western line of the road to York; and in 1648 the walls of Pembroke Castle proved too strong for the light cannon originally at the disposal of Cromwell. The general advantage of the defensive at this time is well shown by the determined resistance made by many fortified posts of no particular strength, such as the isolated manor houses garrisoned in large numbers in the first months of the war. Despite the artillery, such as it was, at the disposal of the Parliamentary commanders, their reduction on an extended scale proved impossible so long as there existed royalist forces in the field capable of making a diversion. The bad roads of the seventeenth century seriously impaired the mobility of heavy artillery, and the earthen outworks of a castle admitted of reshaping in accordance with models derived from continental examples, as in the case of the motte of Cambridge. If it be true to say that artillery killed the medieval castle, we must add the qualification that it took some two centuries in the process.

Last among the reasons which made for the decay of the castle, though, perhaps, of higher importance than any other, were the social forces which played their part in this matter. It was certain that the extreme discomfort of life within the walls of a medieval fortress would no longer be endured when the fortress itself was ceasing to fulfill its original purpose; and in the south and east of England the older castles were rapidly altered to give opportunity for the amenities of life, at a considerable sacrifice of their defensive security. The greater castles of the Midlands, such as Warwick and Kenilworth, play no part in the military business of the Wars of the Roses; they were the residences of their lords in intervals of peace, but they were not garrisoned in time of war. And in the few English castles which were built towards the close of the Middle Ages, the evident

desire to combine effective defensive works with residences of reasonable comfort leads to results of some incongruity. The Lincolnshire castle of Tattershall, on the Witham, overlooking the fens of Kesteven and Holland, which was built by Ralf Lord Cromwell at the middle of the fifteenth century, is a good illustration of these tendencies. Of this castle, the building of which cost more than 4,000 marks, the great tower, now only a shell, and the rectangular ward beneath it, remain. The tower and the walls of the ward are composed of brickwork, excellent brickwork, it is true, but hardly possessing the intrinsic strength of the stone and rubble employed in the keeps and curtains of an earlier age. The tower is four stories high provided with large traceried windows, reproduced on a smaller scale in the four turrets which strengthen the angles of the building; the several floors of the interior were supported on massive timber balks, and the remains of large and ornate fireplaces show that the structure was designed as the permanent dwelling of its lord. Considered, on the other hand, as a defensive work, the tower contains a feature of exceptional interest in the singularly complete system of machicolation with which its roof is provided. Along the crest of the tower there runs an overhanging gallery, commanding the ground beneath through openings in its floor, provided with square-headed windows, admitting of a fire over a wider field, and surmounted by battlements. Against cannon, indeed the tower would be defenceless, for its position, surrounded by level ground on every side, gave to an attacking commander the power of placing a battery at any point which might suit his convenience, but the power of artillery had not been demonstrated against English fortresses when Lord Cromwell died at the beginning of 1456.

With Tattershall Castle this sketch of the development of the English medieval fortress may fittingly close. It remains an exceptional work for the period at which it was constructed, for when, in the fifteenth century we find a baron or knight building anew he commonly builds a hall, a manor house, rather than a castle. Social convenience was steadily triumphing over military necessity; the typical building of the fifteenth century is a fortified dwelling such as Oxburgh Hall in Norfolk, or such as Lord Cromwell's other work at Wingfield in Derbyshire, itself one of the many manorhouses which stood a siege in the Civil War. For we may say, with substantial truth, that it was the decay of the castle, and of the habits of life and methods of thought which the castle implies, which gradually gave scope for the parallel development of English domestic architecture.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE.

The literature which relates to the art of castle-building in England is of vast volume, and of many varying degrees of value. As a comprehensive survey of the whole subject, the "Medieval Military Architecture" of G. T. Clark (2 vols., London, 1884) has not yet been superseded, although large portions of the work are now obsolete. The main value of the book lies in the numerous plans with which it is illustrated; the author's views on the castles of the early Norman period show a tendency to antedate the practice of erecting fortifications in stone, and his identification of earthworks of the mound and base-court pattern with the *burhs* of pre-Conquest times can no longer be upheld. In this last matter Clark's views have been adopted by Oman, "History of the Art of War" (London, 1898). For French castles, C. Enlart's "Manuel d'Archéologie française, Architecture," Vol. II., may be studied. In recent years the most valuable contributions to this subject are associated with the name of J. H. Round and Mrs. E. Armitage. The former in his "Geoffrey de Mandeville" (London, 1892) was the first to suggest the distinction marked in early Norman times between the keep (*turris*) and the adjacent ward (*castellum*); a distinction which has had the effect of referring many rectangular keeps to a date considerably later than had previously been assigned to them. In his paper on "The Castles of the Conquest" (*Archæologia*, LVIII.) Round argued against the widely accepted

equation of *burh* and *motte*, and assigned a number of the earliest Norman Castles in England to the *motte* and *bailey* pattern. In this last matter Mrs. Armitage (Early Norman Castles of England, "Eng. Hist. Rev.," XIX.) by investigating in detail the several castles recorded in Domesday Book, placed the universality of the *motte* and *bailey* plan at this date beyond the range of doubt. A similar service was performed in regard to the earliest castles of Ireland by G. H. Orpen (Mote and Bretasch Building in Ireland, "Eng. Hist. Rev.," XXI.). For Welsh castles in general, compare A. G. Little's "Mediaeval Wales" (Chap. IV.). Lastly, reference must be made to the relevant sections of the "Victoria History of the Counties of England." In the articles dealing with ancient Earthworks, a full and well illustrated account is given of all earthworks of the *motte* and *bailey* pattern contained within each county, and the descriptions of castles included in the topographical portions of the History, will, it may be hoped, place the study of English fortification on a more secure basis than it has possessed up to the present.

SELECTION OF CASTLES.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (1) <i>Motte and Bailey Type:</i> | (3) <i>Rectangular Keeps:</i> |
| Richards Castle. | Canterbury. |
| Ewias Harold. | Rochester. |
| Wigmore. | Scarborough. |
| Clifford. | Norham. |
| Clavering. | Colchester. |
| Ongar. | Guildford. |
| Stafford. | Newcastle. |
| Tutbury. | Knaresborough. |
| Eye. | Ludlow. |
| Pontefract. | Clun. |
| Tickhill. | Bridgenorth. |
| Dudley. | Hedingham. |
| Chartley. | Bramber. |
| Dunster. | Brough. |
| Montacute. | Brougham. |
| Leicester. | Castle Rising. |
| Belvoir. | Clitheroe. |
| Cainhoe (Bedford). | Richmond. |
| Castle Bytham (Lincoln). | Middleham. |
| Bedford. | Dover. |
| Berkhamstead. | Peak. |
| Newton (Montgomery). | Bamburgh. |
| Windsor. | (4) <i>Cylindrical Keeps:</i> |
| Shrewsbury. | Conisboro'. |
| Quatford (Salop). | Pembroke. |
| Whittington. | Launceston. |
| Wallingford. | Skenfrith. |
| Oxford. | Barnard Castle. |
| Tamworth. | Tretower. |
| Penwortham. | Bronllys. |
| Stamford. | Chilham. |
| Fotheringhay. | Aberystwith. |
| New Radnor. | (5) <i>Thirteenth Century:</i> |
| Llandovery (Carmarthen). | Aberconway. |
| Nevers (Pembroke). | Carnarvon. |
| Eardisley (Hereford). | Rhuddlan. |
| Kilpeck (Hereford). | Montgomery. |
| Okehampton. | Harlech. |
| Plympton. | Kidwelly. |
| Pleshey. | Caerphilly. |
| (2) <i>Shell Keeps:</i> | Beaumaris. |
| Arundel. | Whitecastle. |
| Berkeley. | Carreg Cennen |
| Carisbrooke. | (Carmarthen). |
| Durham. | Kilgerran (Pembroke). |
| Clun. | F. M. S. |
| Lewes. | |
| Lincoln. | |
| Tickhill. | |
| Totnes. | |
| Pickering. | |
| Tonbridge. | |

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* The arrangement of this list is only intended to show the chief features of interest in the respective castles.

Certification of High School Teachers of History

By PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, NORMAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

Something over a year ago the American Historical Association appointed a committee to study the preparation and certification of High School Teachers of History. Since then there has been more or less activity among the history teachers of various sections of the country with a view to ascertaining what preparation it is desirable and possible to demand from those who wish to study history in secondary schools. The New England History Teachers have given one of their conventions to the subject. Virginia has a committee studying it. Statistics have been collected in California. A committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, covering the States from Texas to the Great Lakes, has been working vigorously under the leadership of Professor Paxson, of Wisconsin. In fact, I know of no section of the country which has been entirely inactive during the last year.

As a member of the committee of the American Historical Association I have been collecting information in this section, and I wish to take this occasion to thank the several hundred people who have been good enough to answer the questionnaires I have sent out. The full and vigorous answers that have come to me from school administrators, high school teachers, and college and university professors make it perfectly clear that there is no lack of interest in the subject on the part of our people of the Middle States. What I shall have to say in this paper is mainly a mosaic of the answers I have received to these questions, and I shall not intentionally express a judgment that is not supported by a majority of the best teachers in this section. I shall have to differ respectfully from some of our co-workers, who are school administrators, as to what it is possible for us to do. They come into such close relations with the tax-payers and the indifferent public that they are less optimistic than are we in our academic shades. They may also be more nearly right than we are. I am not willing to believe, however, that it is impossible to make ours a more respected and desirable profession than it is at present.

It is doubtless a fact that every occupation must be developed, if at all, by its own members. The law is made honorable by the lawyers. Medicine receives respect only as the doctor deserves and demands the consideration of the people among whom he moves,—*deserves*, because he shows by his conduct a deep interest in the work he is doing and a thorough preparation for it; demands, by preventing the advent into his profession of quacks and other dishonest or incompetent persons.

It is also true beyond much of a peradventure that the teaching of history may still be improved in the elementary school, the high school and the university. To-day, however, we are concerned especially with the work in the high school. There is no teacher who has not heard lamentations that history is so often taught by untrained teachers. Five years ago a discussion of the course of study resolved itself into its elements when Professor McLaughlin wrote "At the bottom the trouble rests . . . in the supreme difficulty in teaching history well and in the lack of preparation of the teacher. As long as it is thought that anyone can teach history even if he has not studied it . . . so long will history occupy a distinguished position among the diseducational subjects." Professor McLaughlin doubtless had in mind the young person who was being examined for a license to teach.

She skipped all the history questions. When the examiner remonstrated with her for the omission she replied with astonishment, "Why I saw no use in answering them. Anybody can teach history. You have it all right there in the book before you." That sounds very ridiculous, of course, but it becomes tragic when you find school authorities and college professors who do not recognize the fundamental error in her position. We have not put ourselves to the trouble to let the public know that it is inconsistent to refuse a license to teach zoology to a candidate who cannot tell a sheep from a kangaroo, but grant permission to teach civics to one who doesn't know a veto from a referendum, and history to one who supposes, if he has ever heard of the period, that the Germanic peoples awoke one morning and said, "This is a fine day to invade the Roman Empire," and proceeded to the invasions. It has ceased to be a joke, and has become a calamity to our school children. It is time for us to cease pointing to our next neighbor, as in the famous Nash cartoon; we must accept the responsibility, and correct the erroneous notions.

One way to make a profession more useful is to demand a longer apprenticeship and a better preparation from those who enter it. A gentleman whom to know is to respect, remarks that to set up a high standard for teachers is too hard on the poor who wish to become teachers. They cannot afford to go through such long years of preparation. For him and for all of us that objection must answer itself when we turn our attention from the poor who wish to teach to the poor who wish to be taught. It is a crime to waste the years of youth in order to provide positions for incompetent grown people. That is a truism I realize, but its truth is respected most often in the violation. If we are to have more efficient history teachers we must become more inflexible in our insistence on thorough preparation before teaching begins. I hear the remark that most of us have heard. The salaries are too small. And I agree that they are, and they always will be small if the wall around the position is so low that every non-descript feels justified in essaying it. Put your standards up and instead of there being a long waiting list for every half-paid position, the place will be obliged to seek the candidate, as it should, and then we can hope for respectful recognition of the worth of those who apply.

What would be the effect if we could persuade the public that we need high school teachers as well prepared as are the teachers of France and Germany? In either country the secondary school teacher has a training equal to that of the doctor of philosophy, though of a different, and for their purpose a far better kind. The German youth, after he has graduated from the gymnasium, spends about five years in the university. He was the equal of a rising junior when he began his university course. He has on finishing it, therefore, the equivalent of three years of graduate work.

Turning from the east to the west, we find that even in remote California every high school teacher must have had a year of graduate work, and in one of her cities at least, he must have had two years of such training. Again I would remind you that this is not the common Ph.D. course, but instruction planned with secondary school work in view. Thorough preparation in the Middle States waits only on the action of those whose duty it is to attend to it, the teachers themselves, who must strengthen their profession.

Let us then outline what may reasonably be made a requirement for eligibility in this section. For the sake of clearness I wish to call attention here to the need of avoiding the position of four classes of extremists. (1) Those who are satisfied with no history, (2) and those who wish too great specializing in it; (3) those who wish no pedagogical training, and (4) those who would over emphasize it. A requirement must recognize two elements. The amount of time,

that is the opportunity, the candidate has given himself; and, the way he has spent his time, the way he has used his opportunity. In the first place as a certificate of opportunity every candidate should present the bachelor's degree. This should be the lower limit even for the small remote high schools. Of course, we all know excellent teachers who have no college degree. We all know university professors who are not college graduates, men able and renowned. But the point is, the school administrators need a rod with which to keep out the incompetent, one that is apparent to boards of education. The schools will be better off lacking the occasional genius who makes a good teacher without a college education if his coming in must leave an open gap through which follow a train of indifferent teachers. They will so enter when their friends insist to the school authorities that they are just as capable as is the genius. What other criterion can the superintendents set up in such a case? For the poorest school then, we demand the college degree; for the somewhat better schools a year of graduate work; and for the schools that pay good salaries and give the opportunity to teach only one subject, two years of graduate work should be asked. This is as much as any school should demand, and it should lead not to the doctorate, but to a broad and well-planned master's course. Now this should be demanded before the license is granted. One of the chief objections to insisting on the college degree is that it so often does not represent anything in particular. Some one has recently suggested that the symbol of the degree be changed in the interest of accuracy to B.Y., for example, Bachelor of Yale, or B.P., Bachelor of Princeton. If to this were added the year in which the degree is conferred, the description would be fairly accurate. I see no reason, however, why the candidate should not present certificates covering the courses actually completed in the college. These should be accepted by the school authorities as assurance that the work has been done, with the same confidence as should be accepted the certificates of the schools for admission to college.

This brings us to the other element of preparation. Given the time spent in college and university what courses shall be taken? First, there should be a liberal education along literary lines; second, there should be special education in history and the sciences of society; third, there should be training in what, for want of a better word, we must call pedagogy.

General education, special knowledge, practical training is what we demand. Of course we demand personality, generous nature, noble ideals, honesty, industry, loyalty, and magnetism. And we shall be told that these are more important than all the academic training. Moreover, we shall agree that they are, without the least hesitation. But all the walks of life need these, and we are differentiating the profession of history teaching from the other occupations. A person is not debarred from any of these characteristics by the fact that he has been trained for the work he expects to do. Moreover, it is almost impossible to find out whether exceptional loyalty, or honor, exist until the candidate has been teaching for some time, and then it is too late. As to the training, on the other hand, we can get fairly satisfactory certification of its character.

What then do we mean by a liberal education along literary lines, special knowledge, and practical training?

The liberal education must include a reading knowledge of two languages besides English. At this time it is unnecessary to defend this proposition. We all know the broadening influence of familiarity with new and untranslatable words, foreign ideas, the drill in accuracy that the study of the foreign forms and constructions of speech gives. We also know how difficult it is to arrive at the best use of our own language, so important for the history teacher, without some practice in the use of another. I do not men-

tion the fact the historical scholar must read discussions now and then which he cannot find in his own language.

A second element of the sort of liberal education our candidate will need is a sympathetic familiarity with the great biological generalizations and hypotheses, with which must go such knowledge of modern science as is common to all cultivated people, including the elements of physics, chemistry, geology, geography and astronomy. How can one teach the great cosmological awakening incidental to the end of the Middle Ages without knowing a little astronomy? I am not sure how this science should be administered or how its command should be tested, but it should be demanded and can be had without Herculean efforts.

A third element in this liberal education should be some of the sort of training to be derived from the study of mathematics or logic. Given the fundamentals of geometry and algebra, I am disposed to lean for the history student toward the logic, deductive and inductive, if it is well taught. There are few more enlightening experiences than a good stiff course in these two sorts of discipline. And it is a sad type of young mind which does not respond to them with alacrity; the mind to which inductive logic does not appeal should not attempt to specialize in the social sciences.

So much for the theoretical content of the liberal education. As a practical aspect of it, one should remember that high school teachers seldom find positions to teach history alone. I myself see no good reason why history and mathematics, or history and modern language, and possibly some English with either combination, is not practicable for the teacher who is properly prepared and certificated in these things. It is not unusual for the German history teacher to take classes in the German language and religion with the history. He is master of the subjects in which he is certificated, in which alone he is permitted to instruct classes. He is a wise candidate who in getting his liberal education takes up the languages or the mathematics with the view to falling back upon them if necessary. This does not reduce, but rather enhances their value as means of education, for they are undertaken with greater and more active interest.

In California, out of 316 history teachers in high schools, only 90 were last year teaching history alone. I repeat, this is not an objectionable condition, but it is depressing when we find that only five per cent. had specialized in history at College.

We turn now from the liberal education to special knowledge of history and the sciences of society. To this field the candidate should have given about one-third of his attention, possibly only thirty per cent. when his preparation is limited to the four undergraduate years. As to what should compose this major in history and the social sciences, opinions will differ widely. It must certainly contain a good strong course in economics, not necessarily in order to teach economics as a separate subject in the schools, but for proper emphasis in the teaching of history and the better education of the candidate. Of a hundred picked teachers to whom a questionnaire was sent, one-fourth answered that the greatest need they felt was for some training in this subject. The others had probably had it. There must, of course, be one *grundlegende* study of political science with stress on actual government, rather than theory; and all centered about the government of the United States. Then there should be generous study of history,—economic, political and social. The purpose of this is not the acquisition of facts, although these are far more useful and desirable than it is customary to consider them in some quarters to-day; but to make the candidate master of his field in a better sense. He must have *bibliographical knowledge, perspective, critical judgment, confidence*, and, most important of all, an interest in and an enthusiasm for the subject. He must know why he is going to teach history and have a real interest in doing

so. He must be able to deal with his subject as one having authority and not as those who copy manuscripts; one who lives in the spirit of his subject and loves it.

I quote a few reasons given by others for a fairly complete knowledge of history on the part of the candidate. "To create interest on the part of the pupil; to add to the teacher's enthusiasm; to save the energy of the teacher and to keep him fresh; to give a broader outlook to the teacher and confidence to the pupil; to give the teacher a definite purpose and point of view; to prevent mere cramming with facts, which is unintelligent savagery; to save from slavery to the text-book (which is not meant as an argument against the use of the text-book); I do not think any amount of historical knowledge counts for so much as familiarity with the way history is written and a good sense of what history itself really is." We must avoid a vicious circle of studying history in order to teach others who are studying it to teach it, and so on, world without end, to no real purpose.

A more concrete discussion of the curriculum for the history major is being prepared by a committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, who hope to offer some useful suggestions to the prospective history teacher as to the division of his energy among such subjects as American history, English history, ancient, medieval and modern history, special advanced courses, seminary work, government, etc. Implied in their report will also be a suggestion as to what school authorities may best demand from the candidate when he comes up for certification.

This same report is to take up the question of pedagogical training which topic brings us to the *third element* in the content of the candidate's college course, namely, practical training. This is a painful subject. I have never heard the training of history teachers discussed in any considerable assemblage in which beneath the courteous phrases of the addresses was not discoverable on the one hand the kindly condescension in the mind of the university man for the pedagogue, and on the other the respectful pity the practical teacher has for the mere book-worm. This antagonism is disappearing somewhat; but it has not been long since one camp insisted that almost no knowledge of the subject is sufficient if only an adequate amount of pedagogy is provided, while their antagonists contended that pedagogy is mere quackery and that if a teacher knows his subject all other things come of evil. My own opinion on the matter is of less importance than that of practical teachers in the secondary schools who answer almost without exception that the candidate must have such pedagogical training. A distinguished student of conditions in this State wrote me: "The candidate should have pedagogical training and practice in college. I see so many wretched failures in high school teaching among inexperienced college graduates, that I feel there must be a general cause underlying it all, namely, the rapid development of the student mind during the college years places the college graduate entirely out of touch with the minds of the younger high school pupils. Unless the college graduates have had pedagogical training and practice, they invariably try to introduce college methods among high school pupils." That such training is eminently desirable can no longer be successfully denied, but the amount and kind to be insisted upon is more difficult to determine. I suggest the following topics in the order of increasing importance as they present themselves to me: Pedagogical psychology and theory; the history of education; the history of history teaching and its main problems; practice and observation in secondary school classes. I apologize for this superficial reference to this great and important field of work; and can only plead lack of time and want of special knowledge to provide a discussion of it that would be helpful. Some are of the opinion that this training should be kept under the guidance of the history department,

while others would turn it over bodily to the department of education. I should be disposed to divide it and bring about co-operation between the two departments; the history department keeping the development of history teaching and its special problems, and the department of pedagogy assuming responsibility for the history and theory of education. We should then come to some such summary of the course of study as the following: The candidate should present the bachelor's degree and generally a year of graduate work; he should present certificates that he has completed satisfactorily a third of the work required for the bachelor's degree in the department of history and the social sciences; he should present a reading knowledge of two foreign languages; his certificates should present a fair knowledge of science, with mathematics or logic and adequate pedagogical training,—say 12 units in the college course. The year or years of graduate work should have been done under the direction of the department of history, with secondary school work in view.

At this point I am somewhat at a loss how to proceed, for I am confident that this discussion is open to two sorts of criticism: Some will agree with most of it, and ask "What of it? I know a good many teachers with just such preparation"; others will pronounce any such program wholly chimerical, and out of the question. It is to this second class that I beg to address the remainder of what I have to say, for what we need is not some trained teachers, but to see to it that we have no other sort.

A well-informed university teacher says: "I look forward with confidence and anticipation to the time when all teachers in our country will be expected to have equipped themselves with college and university training for the pursuit of a profession which should be as learned as, and which is of far more importance to the normal life of the world than law, medicine, or divinity." If this much to be desired consummation is ever to be reached, three classes of persons must be brought to see the light: school administrators, the general public, and the colleges and universities. The school administrators must be strengthened, some sand must be added to their composition, and they must be educated. The general public must be convinced that it is as important to teach a youth at sixteen when his life is being shaped and his ideals set as to teach him at twenty-two; that it is as important to train the healthy mind as to heal the sick body or reform the crooked conscience, or do any of the other less important services for which society pays a comfortable and respected living. The colleges and universities of the East must be persuaded to follow the lead of those of the West and accept a responsible position in the system of public education, whether they happen to be privately endowed or not. If they wish candidates for admission from the public schools (as they do), they must set about to help provide the right sort of teachers for those schools in larger numbers with greater discrimination. This last class, the universities, will be the one most easily brought to do their part. They have been accustomed to plead that they could not conscientiously advise young people to prepare especially for high school work because the demand for properly prepared persons is too limited. A university professor writes me "I believe that more attention should be given to the particular problems that this class of students will afterwards be obliged to confront and solve." Another professor in the same university says, "We have not at present any special course for teachers, but I am inclined to think that if this were required as a part of the preparation for teaching history in high schools, our university would be quite ready to respond to the requirement."

One of the best of the classical colleges: "I am glad to say that next year our educational department is to be con-

siderably enlarged." This is from a member of the history department, not of the pedagogical.

With the public and the school administrators, who are the representatives of the public to a large extent, we should have more trouble, and mainly because *they do not know*. They actually have no idea whatever, what history is or why it is taught, or who can teach it. I cannot lay too much stress on that fact. Their lack of information on this subject is monumental. It is abysmal. I have no words with which to express it. Yet the condition is largely to be laid at our door, at the door of the teachers of history. We know and have not told them plainly and directly enough.

We must keep at work and in co-operation with the other associations who are working on this problem we must remove this incubus of responsibility. It may be desirable for our committee to co-operate with committees of English teachers, and language teachers, etc. But we ourselves must state our platform. Should this action be taken, I urge you to use every effort short of bribery and corruption to advance the work of that committee. The older and more conservative of my correspondents are convinced that the results of our work will be slow in coming and discouragingly small, but they nevertheless without exception urge that we begin at once. The effort will be a long and hard one, but it must be made by us at some time. They urge that we undertake it in the spirit of a crusade.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

—In view of the present agitation in Ireland over Home Rule, we view with interest the article on the old capital, "Highways and Byways of Dublin," by Lindsay Crawford, which appears in the September number of the "Canadian Magazine." The illustrations are particularly attractive.

—"A Loric Case in Ancient Rome" is the catchy title of the description of Cicero's prosecution of Verres the Sicilian grafter as given us by Guglielmo Ferrero in "Hearst's Magazine (The World To-day)" for September.

—The table of contents of the July number of the "Iowa Journal of History and Politics" presents two articles dealing with migration to and from Iowa in the "forties": "The Diary of a Journey from the Netherlands to Pella, Iowa, in 1849," and "Emigration from Iowa to Oregon in 1843."

—"Hunting for the Capital of Australia," by Edwin E. Slosson ("The Independent," Sept. 12) tells us how the Australians have gone about the task of selecting and constructing their new capital. Among various illustrations are the three prize designs for the new city. The first prize was won by the Chicago landscape architect, Walter B. Griffin.

—When the Newdigate prize for 1912 was awarded at Oxford, it was found that it had been won by the Rhodes scholar from Massachusetts, William C. Green, whose poem represents "Richard I. before Jerusalem." The following lines indicate the nature of the theme:

"But in this land mine armies melt away,
Vanquished in victory. Wherefore, O Lord,
Dost Thou deny Thy blessing to Thy Host?"

—The article on "The Patumayo Indians" by Sir Roger Casement ("Contemporary Review" for September) becomes significant when we learn that these Indians have the customs to-day that used to be characteristic of the subjects of the Incas. The author is rather of the opinion that these natives of the upper Amazon may be the lineal descendants of those whose customs they have perpetuated.

—The character sketch of Mutsuhito the Great, which William E. Griffis has written for the September number of the "North American Review," is exceedingly favorable to that ruler perhaps being too eulogistic.

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In the September number the address of Mr. Arthur C. Millsbaugh was given as Augusta, Mich. This is an error; Mr. Millsbaugh's school address is Department of History, High School, Missoula, Mont.

The History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will meet in Philadelphia on November 29 and 30, in connection with the meetings of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the same territory.

The indebtedness of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE to the [English] Historical Association for permission to print the paper upon the "Development of the Castle in England and Wales," is hereby acknowledged. Our readers will no doubt join the editors in expressing their thanks for this privilege.

The first installment of the outline for the study of recent European history appears in this number. The Committee of Five recommended the placing of additional emphasis upon recent history and gave cogent reasons for its views. It did not, however, present any syllabus of the subject, as the Committee of Eight had done earlier in the case of the four periods which the latter committee recommended. In the absence of adequate text-books or other apparatus dealing with this period as a unit, it has been deemed advisable by the editors of the Secondary School Department of the MAGAZINE, to devote this year to the preparation of an outline, accompanied with instructions and reference lists. It is hoped this will assist many teachers in accepting the new course. The authors of the outline, Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton and Dr. Arthur M. Wolfson, will welcome criticism of the outline, suggestions for its improvement, and, especially, accounts of the success or failure of the plan in actual class-work.

Many of the syllabi prepared by state and local committees have been tried out, in advance of publication in final form, in local schools. An excellent opportunity is afforded through the MAGAZINE of experimentation upon a national scale and under diverse conditions. Teachers who have been struggling with the course in modern history are advised to try these outlines. In many cases the outlines will help the teacher and the class; in many others the teacher and the class can suggest improvements in the outlines. Shall we not unite, editors and readers, in producing a syllabus which shall be of definitive value?

In addition to the syllabus on the modern period, it is planned to publish during the present school-year a series of papers prepared by specialists in respective branches, upon several phases of European history. These papers will be written by persons who are trained teachers as well as acknowledged scholars.

The attention of readers of THE MAGAZINE is again called to the list of topics upon secondary school history, printed in the September number. In carrying out their design to make THE MAGAZINE a clearing-house for the pedagogy of history, the editors welcome accounts of successful class work in history whether in high school, or college, or elementary school. No one group of teachers, no matter how wide their experience, can make this paper a success. It will not fulfil its mission unless it can gather the best methods and practices from all parts of the country for the use and benefit of the teacher in any one community. This can be done only by the co-operation of the readers and editors of the paper. Hence the editors are glad to receive accounts of actual class experience either in the arrangement of material, the method of presentation, or the use of libraries or other aids to history teaching.

The annual observance of Pilgrim Day, August 15, was held in Southampton, England, for the second time in August of this year. The four foundation stones of the memorial to be erected by the Pilgrim Memorial Committee were laid amid interesting ceremonies. The statement of receipts and payments shows that the necessary funds for the completion of the memorial along the modified plans which the committee has adopted, have very nearly been obtained. Two pamphlets published by the committee give accounts of the exercises of the day.

History in the Secondary School

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, EDITOR.

Outline of Modern European History, Based Upon the Recommendations of the Committee of Five

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., AND ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

I. AN INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Position of England at the Beginning of the Eighteenth Century.

It is with the opening of the eighteenth century that we begin to discern clearly the germs of those institutions and customs which are so closely identified with the life of the present. The overthrow of Louis XIV marks in point of time the transition from the older and more medieval conception of the absolutist state where the life and welfare of the subject were at the mercy or caprice of the despot, to the more modern eighteenth century conception of the responsibility of the state for the life and well-being of the governed forcing even the autocrat to regard himself as merely the "first servant of the state." France had been and still was the typical state of the old régime, and in the opening years of the century still served as the model for many of her neighbors. She had become the recognized leader of Europe through the labors of a succession of great figures stretching over the entire seventeenth century and on into the first decade of the eighteenth. The period of her decline had now begun, and she gives way gradually to other states and to other influences which were slowly but potently leading mankind toward higher goals and a grander consummation. French ideas and ideals were ultimately to give way to English—and it is to England that we naturally look at the outset of our study that we may realize what these ideals were and how they had been attained. Although England was far in advance of the continent in constitutional development, her insular position and a combination of circumstances,—not the least of which was the change of dynasty in 1715—prevented her from assuming that place of leadership to which she was rightfully entitled. It is only as the century wears on and approaches its close that her ideas become the common property of her continental neighbors and her system is consciously and zealously imitated.

The period from 1603 to 1715 witnessed many changes in the history of the English people. From some points of view they might have been regarded as the most unstable and fickle of races, but out of this apparent confusion finally issued the framework of the British constitution. The sign manual of the change which had been undergone was a sovereign parliament. The great civil war placed parliament on a level with the monarch as a co-ordinate part of the government, not to be dismissed or thrown aside when it suited the pleasure of the autocrat; the revolution of 1688 went a step farther and placed it above the Crown as the ultimate source of the power wielded by the monarch. The perfection of the machinery of parliamentary government and the admission to this sovereign body of representatives of all the people were the tasks which confronted the statesmen of the new era. To understand the government of England in the opening years of the eighteenth century the student should study the dynastic changes, especially as they influenced the development of parties and the cabinet. It was this parliamentary system which was the envy and admiration of the more enlightened statesmen of the continent throughout the following century.

England had also won an enviable place among the nations by her prowess on the sea which was especially in evidence in the conflicts with Holland and France, and by the zealous furtherance of her colonial and commercial interests.

Influence of France and French Ideas.

Contrasting markedly with England in the opening years of the century was her former enemy across the water. The divine right theory of government, rejected on this side of the Channel was still the most potent fact in connection with her governmental system. With all the evils of the system, however, France was still the most progressive state on the continent and the formidable rival of England in her claims to leadership. Although the checks sustained by Louis XIV and the weakness of his immediate successors resulted in French diplomacy carrying less weight in the councils of Europe, the French people were everywhere recognized as the social and intellectual peers of Europe. Europe still acknowledged the potency of the word French.

Appearance of New States.

By the time this new century opens new powers have appeared to dispute the sway of the old and to lay the foundations of their present greatness and influence. While Louis XIV was still at the height of his power, Peter the Great was dragging Russia from her Eastern isolation and seclusion and drawing at the same time to her ruin his powerful rival, Sweden, who from this time forward instead of shaping European policies is moulded and shaped by her neighbors. The question of the total disappearance of another state had already been raised; Poland's doom was already forecast. Prussia had also become an important factor among the nations, thanks to the labors of the House of Hohenzollern and the Great Elector. Now under the guidance of Frederick the Great, and in pursuance of further schemes of aggrandizement, she was about to plunge Europe into struggles whose echoes were to be heard in the remotest corners of the earth. Spain, too, and Holland, are passive agents in the hands of their stronger neighbors. This situation is explained in the case of Holland by the blows which had been struck at her commerce in the seventeenth century and the decline of her navy which followed her close dependence upon England in the struggle with Louis XIV. Spain's impotence dates farther back to the defeat of the Armada, and the War of the Spanish Succession was only additional evidence of her elimination as a real force in European politics. The schemes of Alberoni, instead of improving her position, rendered her still weaker by his utter disregard of her internal condition.

The New Ideas and Their Influence.

The real interest in eighteenth century Europe lies in the new ideas which took hold of men and the struggle which ensued between the old and the new, bringing Europe at the end of the century face to face with the specter of revolution. Eighteenth century Europe became a great melting pot of ideas out of which was to issue a new civilization. Belief in absolutism and religious intolerance were marked characteristic of the seventeenth century. In the realm of ideas the interest of the thinkers or so-called philosophers was confined principally to metaphysics and psychology. Although their investigations anticipate modern scientific method they do not venture into the realm of politics and government. On the contrary, they insisted that the affairs of government were the special prerogative and concern of those who were charged with governing. Although a slight beginning was made in France, it was in England particularly that the attention of thoughtful men was now directed to man in his relations with government. This was in part at least the result of English development. The ideas of a Locke as to the relation of church and state and individual liberty were enthusiastically caught up on the continent, especially in France, and Voltaire and the French literary men became the media through which these ideas were presented to all Europe. This was done with all the attractiveness and charm of which they were capable. Europe became imbued with the new philosophy. The activities of the so-called enlightened despots are all directed toward placing these ideas in practice. These rulers propounded a new theory of government "that the sovereign is only the head of the state; he has not the right to spend the money from the taxes for his own personal pleasure; he should employ it in useful works; he has not the right to give the offices to his favorites, he should give them to intelligent and honest men who will look upon themselves as servants of the state." (Seignobos, "Contemporary Civilization," p. 76.) These despots, however, had no sympathy with the idea of popular government, nor were they in any sense believers in the sovereignty of the people. Nevertheless, they did much to hasten the disappearance of many a vestige of tyranny and oppression and mark the transition from medieval to modern standards of living. Inasmuch as these reforms could only be effected through a well-organized administrative system and expert administrators, the period marks the establishment of those bureaucratic systems which are still the distinguishing characteristics of continental Europe. The English people had already made too much progress

toward constitutional liberty to place themselves under the sway of a single will, however much he might have the welfare of his subjects at heart; the rulers of France were too weak and vacillating to ever place these reforms in operation. The development of these two countries, therefore, partakes of that individualistic character which has already been emphasized until modified by the economic and social revolutions of the end of the century.

The following outlines have been worked out in accordance with these ideas. An endeavor has been made to strike at the outset the keynote of our modern civilization and to ascertain the origin of those social, economic and political forces which have given us our modern industrial and political order. It has seemed best to deal with the economic development of Europe in connection with the commercial rivalry which fills so large a place in the annals of the century. This aspect of the eighteenth century will therefore be considered in the next installment of these outlines.

I. Supremacy of Parliament and Establishment of Constitutional Government in England.

1. The Great Civil War and its consequences.
2. The Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights.
3. The change of dynasty and its effects.
 - a. Growth of the Cabinet—Walpole.
 - b. Development of the party system of government.
4. The English system of government.
 - a. The king.
 - b. The cabinet.
 - c. Parliament: composition and powers.
 - d. The Church—The Toleration Act.
5. Influence of England on the continent.
 - a. The English political system.
 - b. Struggle with Louis XIV.

II. The Establishment of Absolutism in France and the Decline of French Prestige in Europe.

1. The Divine Right Theory of government as applied in France.
 - a. The position of the king—patronage of art and literature.
 - b. The army—Louvois; Vauban.
 - c. The Court.
 - d. The Church.
 - e. Social classes.
2. The influence of French ideas and French culture.
 - a. On art.
 - b. On literature.
3. The downfall of Louis XIV and its effects upon Europe.

III. The Appearance of New European Powers and the Passing of Older States.

1. Rise of Russia and decay of Sweden.
 - a. Modernization of Russia by Peter the Great.
 - (1) Military and naval reforms.
 - (2) Reforms in the administration—struggle with the nobles.
 - (3) Reforms in the Church.
 - (4) Introduction of Western customs.
 - b. Overthrow of Charles XII—Pultawa, 1709.
 - c. Russia's position in Europe—Question of Poland.
2. Rise of Prussia.
 - a. The Prussian system of government.
 - b. Expansion of Prussia in Europe to 1740.
3. The passing of Holland.
 - a. Sources of her power in the seventeenth century.
 - b. Wars with England and effects on her position in Europe.
 - (1) The Navigation Acts.
 - (2) Loss of New Netherlands.
4. The decay of Spain.
 - a. Effects of War of Spanish Succession.
 - b. European interests of Alberoni.

IV. The Reform Movement of the Eighteenth Century.

1. The old ideas.
 - a. Seventeenth century interest in psychology and metaphysics.
 - b. Belief in absolutism.
 - c. Religious intolerance.
2. The new ideas.
 - a. John Locke.
 - (1) Letters on Tolerance.

(2) Essay upon Civil Government.

b. The French philosophers and publicists. (Voltaire, Montesquieu.)

(1) Influence of Locke.

(2) Demands for religious and political reform

(a) Voltaire's Letters to the English and Philosophical Dictionary.

(b) Montesquieu's Spirit of the Laws.

3. The enlightened despots and their reforms.

a. Their ideas of a ruler's duty.

b. The nature of their task—social and economic conditions on the continent.

(1) Survivals of feudalism.

(2) Legal abuses.

(3) Intellectual torpor.

(4) Power of the Church—the Jesuits.

c. Their reforms.

(1) Reforms in the feudal system.

(a) Abolition of serfdom in Denmark.

(b) Abolition of slavery in Portugal.

(2) Law and justice.

(a) Influence of Beccaria.

(b) Abolition of torture.

(c) Codification of the law—Frederick the Great.

(3) Public Works.

(a) Road-making.

(b) Harbor improvement.

(4) Education.

(a) Primary education.

(b) Founding of the learned academies.

(c) Universities.

(5) Freedom of the press.

(6) Toleration—Catherine II; Joseph II.

d. Effects of their work.

(1) European bureaucracies.

(2) Transition from medieval to modern society.

REFERENCES.

Hassall, in Chapter I, of the "Balance of Power," summarizes the opening years of the century, calling attention to the various lines of development which characterize the period. English constitutional development has been summarized by Seignobos in his "Medieval and Modern Civilization," pp. 387-399, and by Robinson in his "Western Europe," Chapter XXX. The teacher will find Oman, "England under the Stuarts," and Robertson, "England under the Hanoverians," very helpful in placing English events in their proper perspective, particularly the introduction to each volume.

Plenty of material may be found on Louis XIV and his age. Attention is directed to the bibliography contained in the article on "Louis XIV and His Age" in the *MAGAZINE* of February, 1911. Mention should also be made here of Johnson, "Age of the Enlightened Despot," Chapters I, II; Adams, "Growth of the French Nation," Chapter XIII; Voltaire, "Age of Louis XIV, Vol. II, Chapters XXIX-XXXIV, and Duruy, "History of France," Chapters I, LIII, LIV.

Considerable material is available in the standard histories on Russia and Prussia and the status of the minor European States. Seignobos, "Contemporary Civilization," Chapter I, is especially suggestive. To this may be added Johnson, "Enlightened Despot," Chapter IV; Robinson and Beard, "Development of Modern Europe," Vol. I, Chapter IV; Robinson, "Europe," Chapter XXXII, and Bain, "Pupils of Peter the Great," Chapters I, II.

Seignobos, "Contemporary Civilization," Chapter III, will serve as an excellent introduction to the reform movement of the century, and the changes which it entailed. This should be supplemented by such accounts as are to be found in Robinson and Beard. Vol. I, Chapters VIII-X, the introduction to Stephens, "Revolutionary Europe," and Ducoudray, "History of Modern Civilization," Chapters XII-XIII. The following books should prove helpful in forming an estimate of the work done by the writers: Grant, "French Monarchy," Vol. II, Chapter XX; Mathews, "French Revolution," Chapter V; Lowell, "Eve of the French Revolution," Chapters V, X; Adams, "French Nation," pp. 268-271, and Sorel, "Montesquieu." The work of the typical enlightened despot is illustrated in the career of Joseph II. The life of the emperor by Bright is very readable as is also the account of his work in Johnson, "Enlightened Despot," Chapter X.

History in the Normal and Elementary School

CARL E. PRAY, EDITOR.

A Lesson Plan on European Conditions Which Made Possible the Discovery of America

BLANCHE A. CHENEY, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, LOWELL, MASS.

I. THE RENAISSANCE, 1300-1500.

1. We begin with a short review of the effects of the Crusades: love of travel, growth of liberty, commerce, and learning among Europeans.

2. The next step is one effect of the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453: the flight of the Greek scholars with their precious manuscripts to Italy. Lead the pupils to see how these learned Greeks influenced the Italians to make a systematic study of Greek literature; how a passionate desire for the old Greek literature, philosophy, art, and science, animated men's minds and led to a diligent search for priceless manuscripts, which were copied and recopied and thus saved from destruction.

3. Explain the term Renaissance, new birth, and give a simple illustration, like the blossoming of the lilac bush in the spring after the long sleep of winter, to show this new spirit of interest which had come to Europeans during the fifteenth century.

4. Illustrative material: manuscripts; reproductions of the paintings and sculpture of the period from the public library.

5. Teachers' references.

Seignobos, "History of Medieval and of Modern Civilization," Chapter XIX.

Symonds, "Renaissance in Italy."

Hollings, "Six Ages of European History," Vol. IV, Chapter XXII.

For further references see "Outline of Medieval and Modern History," by the New England History Teachers' Association.

6. Pupils' references.

Niver, "Great Names and Nations, Modern," pp. 134, 135.

Tappan, "European Hero Stories," pp. 152-170.

Haaren and Poland, "Famous Men of the Middle Ages," pp. 257-262.

Kemp, "History for Graded and District Schools," pp. 329-346.

Conway, "Children's Book of Art," Chapters 5-7.

Bourne and Benton, "Introductory American History."

II. THE INVENTION OF PRINTING, 1450.

1. Manuscripts: Review method of making books before printing was invented. Picture the monks in the monasteries slowly and laboriously copying by hand on parchment and adorning the pages with beautifully illuminated capitals. Borrow some manuscripts from the public library and show to the pupils. Ask the class to decide as to the number and cost of books at that time, and the consequent effect upon the spread of knowledge.

2. Block Printing: Explain how the early printers used a block of wood upon which they carved raised letters or pictures. The design was covered with ink. Then the printer could transfer it by hand pressure to a sheet. The Chinese still use this method. An example of this style may be seen on the paper (printed only on one side) which covers every chest of tea. Show the advantages of block printing over the manuscripts. Let the pupils see the disadvantage, that each new page meant the engraving of new plank, so a more practical way was sought.

3. Printing with Movable Metal Types: Separate letters which could be put together as desired were then tried, but wooden letters proving useless, a German named Gutenberg invented leaden types in 1450. His first book printed in this way was the Bible. The Dutch hold that one Coster, of Haarlem, used metal types before this date, but it is certain that Gutenberg put this new art on a firm basis, for it was from Germany that printing spread rapidly into Italy and then into all the countries of Western Europe. Help the students to see that all inventions are of slow growth and from rude beginnings; that one man improves upon another's work, until finally the invention is made practical.

4. Caxton and his Introduction of the Printing Press into England. This topic may be presented to the class in the form of an oral thesis, by a pupil previously selected by the teacher and given certain definite references from which to obtain his material, such as Philip's "Historical Reader," III, pp. 171-174; Mowry's "First Steps in History of England," pp. 148, 149; or any good biography in school or public library.

5. Invention of Paper: Let the pupils review some of the different materials which man has used in times past for the preserva-

tion of his thoughts: rock, clay, papyrus, waxen tablets, vellum or parchment, and paper, and just at the time when the printing press was invented, paper made of cotton and linen rags became a cheap and abundant material for its work.

6. Effects of the Invention of Printing: Lead the students to the following conclusions by questions. Number of books greatly increased, while the cost of books greatly decreased. All classes of people could now satisfy their keen desires for all kinds of knowledge, thus broadening and strengthening the Renaissance. Through the Renaissance and the printing press, men gradually gained independence in thought, which finally resulted in freedom in religion, free schools and libraries, and a free press not only in Europe, but in our own country many years later. (The first printing press in North America was put up in Cambridge, Mass., 1638.) Therefore printing is one of the greatest inventions of man.

7. Illustrative Material: Pictures of Gutenberg's rude press; of Edward IV's visit to Caxton's printing shop at the sign of the "Red Pale"; of Franklin and his printing press. Old books such as the New England Primer are contrasted with the splendidly bound and finely illustrated books of to-day. Copies of early newspapers and magazines are contrasted with those of the present time.

The class visits a modern printing press to see the wonderful machinery which prints, cuts, folds, and counts, the newspaper of to-day. A written report is made to the teacher. Small groups of students may visit a paper mill, or a bookbinder's shop and report to the class.

8. Teachers' References.

Putnam, "Books and Their Makers During the Middle Ages," Vol. I. The making of books in monasteries and universities; the invention of printing. Volume II. Caxton's introduction of printing into England. Encyclopedia Britannica, article "Typography."

9. Pupils' References.

Seignobos, pp. 237, 238.

Kemp, "History for Graded and District Schools," pp. 115, 116.

Chase and Clow, "Stories of Industries," Vol. II.

Buckley, "Short History of Natural Science," Ch. VII.

Towle, "Heroes and Martyrs of Invention," Chs. II and III.

Baldwin, "Thirty Famous Stories Retold," pp. 40-49.

Haaren and Poland, "Famous Men of the Middle Ages," pp. 257-262.

III. THE INVENTION OF GUNPOWDER.

1. Composition: A mixture of charcoal, sulphur, and a white powder called saltpeter, which explodes when rammed into a tight place and set on fire.

2. Origin and Development: Like printing, gunpowder was known first by the Chinese, but they used it only for fireworks. The Arabs improved gunpowder, making it throw stones through a tube. Returning Crusaders probably introduced gunpowder into Europe, and from them Roger Bacon may have learned the recipe. Froissart speaks of the rude cannon used in the Hundred Years' War in such a way that one sees the aim at that time to be noise and confusion rather than destruction. Slowly, but surely, however, artillery became dangerous in the sixteenth century, and firearms in the seventeenth century.

3. Effects: Lead the students to tell you that gunpowder revolutionized warfare and caused the downfall of feudalism, because artillery shattered the massive walls of the lord's great castle and a lord without a castle was powerless.

Since only kings had a sufficient wealth to keep troops of artillery, absolute monarchies arose. Then, too, a yeoman with a gun could kill the noble knight in armor. Thus, for the first time the common man had a means of forcing justice and even freedom from his lord. Later, during the period of discovery pupils will see that the possession of firearms by the Europeans enabled them to conquer savage tribes of both east and west.

4. Illustrative Material: Pictures of knights clad in armor, peasants with crossbow, the great castle withstanding easily the attacks of ram and bore; pictures of the rude cannon and heavy firearms to show how quickly the castle crumbled under their

withering fire. Pictures of the great modern guns on our big battleships show the development from the crude weapons.

5. Teachers' References.

Encyclopedia Britannica.

Seignobos, pp. 235, 236.

Kemp Outline, p. 116.

6. Pupils' References.

Atkinson, "European Beginnings of American History," pp. 272-274.

Kemp, "History for Graded Schools," pp. 344-346.

Tappan, "England's Story," p. 109, III.

Guerber, "Story of the English," pp. 128, 155.

Baldwin, "Thirty More Famous Stories Retold," pp. 67-81.

IV. AIDS TO NAVIGATION: MARINERS' COMPASS; ASTROLABE; IMPROVED MAPS AND CHARTS.

1. The Invention of the Mariner's Compass: The lack of instruments for ocean navigation had obliged seamen to hug the shores of the Mediterranean until in the thirteenth century there was invented a wonderful instrument by which adventurous men could sail away on unknown waters and return in safety. How did it come about. It is said that the Chinese found that the lodestone or natural magnet had the power to attract iron, and that the Arabs knew of this mysterious power. The true inventor, whoever he was, first observed that a needle rubbed by the magnet points to the north. Gioja, a native of Amalfi, Italy, experimented with this magnetized needle and found that by placing it on a straw or cork and floating it in a basin of water it would always turn to the north. Then he fastened a card on the piece of cork and floated it. Whichever way he turned the basin, the needle carried the card around until the north of the needle pointed to the north. For convenience he placed the needle on a pivot so it could swing easily, protected it with a box and connected it with a round card marked with the thirty-two points of the compass. As the King of Naples of that time belonged to the royalty of France, Gioja marked the north point of the needle with a fleur-de-lys in his honor and the compasses of all nations still bear this sign.

Even when the invention was made practical its use grew slowly because of the superstition of the sailors. Read to the class Latini's letter written to a friend when Latini was visiting Roger Bacon; Fiske's "Discovery of America," I, pp. 314, 315; or Beazley's "Prince Henry the Navigator," p. 166. By the last days of the thirteenth century the compass was in general use among Italian sailors.

What service did the compass perform? Mariners could find their bearings day or night, in all weather, out of sight of land. Since to-day it is the only means of keeping a vessel continually on her course the compass is constructed with the greatest care, and the compass-box is so mounted that it will remain level when the ship rolls. The compass is the very eye of the ship. "Do not speak to the man at the wheel." Why?

2. The Astrolabe: An instrument by means of which sailors measured the height of the sun above the horizon at noon and could thus tell the distance of the ship from the equator. Like the compass, it is still in use on all ships at the present time, but has been greatly improved, and is now called the sextant.

3. Maps and Charts: Mariners of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries began to question the fantastic maps of the ancient geographers. Prince Henry, the Navigator, established a school for seamen where he taught them to sail ships and to make maps and charts of the coasts along which their vessels sailed. The Genoese navigators also engaged in the work of charting the Mediterranean coast.

The compass and the astrolabe, together with these improved maps and charts, made mariners feel a safety which they had never felt before. With this feeling of safety there came gradually the courage to sail out upon the dreadful "Sea of Darkness." See Cheyney, "European Background of American History," Chapters III, IV, and for the pupils, Barnes' "Studies in American History," pp. 3-18.

4. Illustrative Material: Ask the pupils to bring compasses and magnets into the class for study; let them try the experiment of making for themselves a simple compass like the earliest ones. They prepare a basin of water, magnetize a needle, let it float on the water by means of a straw; or, better, by drawing the needle between the fingers upon which has been placed a drop of oil (the oil will sustain the needle); they find whichever way the bowl is

turned, the needle will always point north. Let the "Boy Scouts" relate their experiences with the compass when on their "hikes." Perhaps some scout can "box the compass," i. e., recite the names of the thirty-two points of the compass.

5. Teachers' References.

Accounts in good encyclopedias and in such geographies as Redway's "Elementary Physical Geography," p. 276, and Gilbert and Brigham's "Introduction to Physical Geography," pp. 274, 275.

6. Pupils' References.

Parton's "Triumphs of Science," p. 145.

Buckley's "Short History of Natural Science," Chapter VIII. Redway, p. 286, the Ritchie compass; the English compass, and effect of steel vessels on compass.

V. THE SEARCH FOR NEW TRADE ROUTES TO THE EAST.

1. The Crusades caused a great commerce with Asia because Europe demanded the precious spices and other rich products of the East. Venice and Genoa were the commercial cities controlling the main routes of trade. (Trace routes from map on blackboard.) The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 closed up these trade routes. So adventurous men sought new routes to the East, for this Indian trade was the prize of the world.

2. Under the leadership of Prince Henry, the Navigator, the Portuguese tried to find the East by sailing southward around Africa. In 1497 Vasco Da Gama reached the goal. Thus Portugal was the first country to find a new route to the riches of India.

3. In the meantime the question of finding a direct route arose. Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, and a great student of geography and navigation, believing the earth to be round, proposed sailing westward across the "Sea of Darkness" to find the East. In 1492 he set forth to prove his theory. He did not find India as he supposed. He found a new world!

4. Illustrative Material: Pictures of Prince Henry, Da Gama, Isabella, and Columbus; of Venice and Genoa; of the ships of Columbus.

5. Teachers' References.

Cheyney, "European Background of American History," Chapters I, II.

Fiske, "Discovery of America," I, pp. 272-446.

Beazley, "Henry, the Navigator," Chapters VII, X, XX.

6. Pupils' References.

Any of the school histories of the United States: Channing, Hart, McLaughlin and Van Tyne, Gordy or Elson. Old South Leaflets, No. 30, 32.

Lawler, "Columbus and Magellan," Chapters I, II.

Tappan, "England's Story: Why England Did not Discover America," p. 160.

VI. SUMMARY: Now clinch what has been taught by having the pupils state a condition and show how it led to discovery.

1. When Columbus returned to Europe, men's minds were prepared through the influence of the Renaissance to receive with eager interest his marvellous tales of strange, new lands.

2. By means of the printing press, news of the early discoveries was spread broadcast over Europe, and soon a great race for possession was begun by the leading nations of Europe.

3. The invention of nautical instruments, such as the compass, made it possible for sailors to go out upon the trackless ocean and return in safety after discovering new lands. Then came the exploration and colonization of these lands.

4. The invention of gunpowder made an easy conquest of the natives of America and the savages of the East Indies.

5. The lure of vast wealth led men to search for new trade routes to the Indies, and while Columbus was trying to find a short westward route, he accidentally discovered America. This great event marks the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the Modern Era.

In this series of lessons the method is largely oral presentation by the teacher, who, however, always leads her pupils to draw their own conclusions after the facts have been given. The pupils' collateral reading is tested by oral reports to the class.

The time required to teach this subject will vary from three to five periods of forty minutes, each according to the amount of work in history which the class has had as preparation for this subject.

Bibliography and History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

JOHNSTON, R. M. *The Holy Christian Church from Its Remote Origins to the Present Day.* Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. xx, 331. \$1.50 net.

This work is designed by the author for the general reader who has no time or inclination to make thorough special investigations in any one period of the numerous centuries covered in his survey. "The object of this book is chiefly to attempt co-ordination, to seize the proportions, the relations, the movement, the essential facts of Christianity as seen over a period of more than two thousand years, over nations that stretch from Kashmir to California, over civilizations as wide apart as those of the Age of Pericles and of Napoleon, of Gnosticism and the Trusts."

The author begins with a survey of Greek and Roman thought before Christ and its influences. Next he traces the evolution of the Jewish religion down to the time of Christ in two chapters. Then follow four chapters dealing with Jesus, Paul, and the history of Christianity from 70 to 312 A.D. Here the author takes especial pains to show the evolution of many Christian doctrines and practices from those of other oriental religions of earlier origin. He treats these problems rationally, clearly, and sympathetically, and sets forth much interesting information not generally known even to thinking Christian believers. The next three chapters cover the history of Christianity from the conversion of Constantine through the early middle ages and show clearly the tremendous influence of paganism, Roman customs, and the Roman law on the doctrines and practices of the medieval Catholic Church. Two chapters more give an estimate of the Roman Church in the middle ages. Twelve of the sixteen chapters in two hundred twenty-one pages thus carry the narrative only up to the Renaissance. The remaining four chapters are somewhat more hurried and will probably be less satisfactory to the general reader who has not read the details of narrative history recently. But this as well as the earlier portion of the book contains many clever characterizations which will delight mature readers. The author's generalizations are often rather broad for absolute historical accuracy and occasionally errors of fact have crept in. It was not Innocent III. who excommunicated Frederick II. so many times (page 215). But such slight errors do not prevent the book from fulfilling its purpose. It is not light reading, but teachers of history will find it very suggestive and stimulating and should read it. It is wholly unsuited to any high school students except a very few of exceptional maturity. Clarence Perkins.

MACMILLAN, DONALD. *A Short History of the Scottish People.* New York and London, Hodder & Stoughton. Pp. xx, 484. \$3.00.

LANG, ANDREW. *A Short History of Scotland.* New York, Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 344. \$2.00.

One of the weak points in the teaching of English history in the past has been that, in matters of general British interest, the English view point is the only one presented. It is clear, however, that on subjects like the wars with Bruce, the conflicts between the Tudors and the Stuarts, the Bishops' wars, the union of 1707, the risings of '15 and '45, to mention only the more important, it might be worth while to see how the facts are treated by Scotch historians. Unfortunately, good single volume histories of Scotland have been rare; the writer can recall P. Hume Brown's volume only. But among the books of the present year there are two "Short Histories," those of Macmillan and Lang, that will prove very useful to both teacher and pupil. Andrew Lang's volume is a condensation of his larger history; it has the advantage of being the work of a great literary artist and a fairly reliable, though not always impartial, historian. Particularly full is Lang's account of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Macmillan's history is less a political narrative and more a story of national growth: the author devotes nearly half of his book to the middle ages, while Lang gives only one-fourth of a smaller volume to that period. Dr. Macmillan also shows more sympathy for the reformation movement in Scotland than does Andrew Lang, who was never able (and never wished) to conceal his contempt for Knox and the "preachers." Both writers practically close their histories with the failure of '45, though

Macmillan has added a brief but suggestive chapter on modern Scotland. Each volume has its own good points, but it is likely that Macmillan's work, as the less detailed and more descriptive of the two, will be found the more satisfactory for supplementary reading. Lawrence M. Larson.

ANDREWS, CHARLES M. *The Colonial Period.* (Home University Library). New York. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. vii, 256. 50 cents.

The plan of the author is to illuminate colonial conditions between 1607 and 1765 by depicting for the reader on a scale relatively much larger than usual, those aspects of the times in the mother country that had to do with the inception of the colonies and their administration, especially British theories of trade and of colonial relations and the governmental machinery for the direction and control of colonial affairs; and his treatment includes the colonies of Canada and the West Indies as well as the thirteen on our seaboard. The military side of the subject is purposely neglected and the social has but slight emphasis, but the economic and political receive very full and careful treatment. Especially valuable are the sketches of the colonial governments, of British machinery for colonial administration and of the development of colonial independence in important essentials before 1765. It is the most scholarly book of its size in this field of American history and is a definite contribution both to this series of books and to the literature on the colonial period. For the most part it is not too advanced for high school pupils, and it will enrich the library of every teacher of American history. Wayland J. Chase.

MASTERMAN, J. HOWARD B. *A History of the British Constitution.* London, Macmillan & Co. Pp. x, 291. 80 cents.

This book promises to be a very useful addition to the library equipment of the high school teacher of English history. Both in compass, plan, and contents it is a notable improvement on the older books that have been used to supplement the text book on the constitutional side. Though brief and concise, it contains a great deal of useful, pertinent, and well chosen information. The plan of the work is chronological rather than topical, which fact makes it easier for the teacher to make satisfactory assignments. Of particular interest and value are the last eight chapters of the book which deal with such important but frequently neglected subjects as party organizations, the cabinet, the government of the colonies, English local government, recent changes in parliament, and the established church. Unfortunately the work is not wholly free from errors, but these usually relate to details of slight importance only. The book is greatly in need of revision, but even in its present form it will prove very serviceable, as the author has succeeded in finding the salient facts of English constitutional development, and has presented these in a clear and forceful manner. Laurence M. Larson.

HAWORTH, PAUL LELAND. *Reconstruction and Union.* New York. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 251. 50 cents.

This little volume, No. 39 of the Home University Library, takes up the narrative of events where Paxson's "Civil War" dropped it, and includes a wider range of time than its title clearly implies, for it covers the interval from 1865 to 1912. Here is a period so much a part of the present that even the earliest echoes of its conflicts have not died away and it is admittedly difficult to treat dispassionately and judicially. But the only passion the author shows is that for civic righteousness and good government. This seems to have led him to neither misinterpretation nor misrepresentation of facts, though it doubtless has contributed to his vigor of expression and too his choice of the chapter headings,—"The Golden Age of Materialism" and "The Revolt Against Plutocracy."

The summaries of administrations are comprehensive and informing, the explanations of policies are lucid and the characterizations of men are clear cut. There is a "go" to the narrative, too, so that the reader's interest is well sustained. Teachers will find the book helpful for themselves and well adapted for supplementary reading for high school pupils in a field in which it is at present probably the best available material. Wayland J. Chase.

HERBERT, HILARY A. *The Abolition Crusade and its Consequences.* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xiv. 249. \$1.00.

The book is a product of the study of the experiences of a richly varied life and is a conclusion from observed events rather than from reported facts. The author was born and reared a southerner, the son of slaveholding parent, served throughout the Civil War in the Confederate Army, was for sixteen years from 1877 a member of Congress from Alabama, and was Secretary of the Navy in Cleveland's second administration. Unquestionably here is an exceptionally close contact with the problems of which he writes and a most excellent training for the consideration of them. His thesis is that it was not the cotton gin that reconciled the South to slavery, but the abolition societies begun by Garrison. It was these that by their methods and defiance of the constitution shut off discussion in the South about the rightfulness of slavery, and, rousing fears and passions, developed sectionalism and resulted in secession and war. He tells the story of this great sectional movement from 1831 to the close of the period of reconstruction, devoting much the larger space to the period of causation, 1831-60, and closing with a brief chapter on the South since 1876. There is a prefatory note by James Ford Rhodes, who says he finds the book pervaded by practical knowledge and candor and entitled to a large hearing. His endorsement should attract both students and teachers of American history to this work.

Wayland J. Chase.

LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM AUGUST 31 TO SEPTEMBER 28, 1912.

American History.

- Bacon-Foster, Corra. *Early chapters in the development of the Potomac route to the West.* Washington, D. C.: Columbia Hist. Soc. 277 pp. \$2.00.
- Bogart, Ernest L. *Financial History of Ohio.* Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois. 358 pp. \$1.80.
- Kilpatrick, William H. *The Dutch Schools of New Netherland and Colonial New York.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 239 pp. [3 pp. bibl.].
- Miller, John R. *Odds and Ends of Cumberland County, (Penna.) History.* Carlisle, Pa.: The Author. 27 pp. Gratis.
- Morse, Edwin W. *Causes and Effects in American History.* New York: Scribner. 302 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Nelson, Thomas F. *Report on the Chalkley MSS.* Washington, D. C.: The Author. 24 pp. Gratis.
- Niles, Grace G. *The Hoosac Valley, its Legend and its History.* New York: Putnam. 584 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Olbrich, Emil. *The Development of Sentiment on Negro Suffrage to 1860.* Milwaukee, Wis.: University of Wisconsin. 135 pp. [6½ pp. bibl.]. 25c.
- Saunders, Charles F. *The Indians of the Terraced Houses.* New York: Putnam. 293 pp. [5p. bibl.]. \$2.50 net.
- Taylor, Hannis. *The real Authorship of the Constitution Explained.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 87 pp.
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- Walton, Perry. *Devonshire Street [Boston]; a collection of facts and incidents.* Boston: Second National Bank. 47 pp. Gratis.
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- Williams, Meade C. *Early Mackinac: A Sketch Historical and Descriptive.* (rev. ed.). New York. Duffield. 184 pp. \$1.00 net.

Ancient History.

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European History.

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- Guggenheimer, A. *A general history of the Christian Era.* In 3 vols. Vol. 2. *The Protestant Revolution.* (new ed.). St. Louis: Herder. 472 pp. \$1.50.
- Shelley, Henry C. *Old Paris; its social, historical and literary associations.* Boston: L. C. Page. 354 pp. \$3.00 net.

Medieval History.

- Burnham, John M. *An old Portuguese Version of the Rule of Benedict.* Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati. 78 pp. 75c.
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Government and Politics.

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In connection with the dedication of the new State Education Building at Albany, N. Y., on October 15-17, an address was made by Canon H. Hensley Henson, of Westminster Abbey, upon "The Value of Historical Studies to the Higher Learning." In this Canon Henson spoke of a knowledge of the past as being the greatest emancipating power in civilization, as an ignorance of the past is its greater curse. "The study of history," said he, "is one of the great cementing forces of society; a corrective against fanaticism. History should not be treated as a satisfactory source of precedent, but as a record of progress, and in applying history to our lives, the student should be on the lookout not for parallels alone, but for differences as well. History thus becomes an instrument of culture in the State, and every branch of learning gains by the relating of its facts to history."

Mr. Charles W. Disbrow, of the East High School, Cleveland, O., has prepared a series of questions in English history, designed to accompany lessons assigned by the author, and containing page references to Montgomery's "Leading Facts of English History."

NOTES.

The Historical Association (English) has issued an "Annual Bulletin of Historical Literature, No. 1," for 1911. The object of the "Bulletin," which it is hoped to issue annually, is to keep teachers of history in touch with what is being done in historical research. The principal books appearing during the year are reported upon by scholars of recognized standing. Eight periods of history are given: Ancient, early medieval, medieval (1000-1200), later medieval (1200-1485), the sixteenth century, the seventeenth century, the eighteenth century, and the nineteenth century. Under each one of these headings, a summary is given of the works published during 1911 upon the period. No attempt is made at extending reviewing, but rather at an estimate of the advance in historical literature during the year.

On October 5-12 there was given in Philadelphia a historical pageant under the direction of Dr. Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. The pageant differed from many of those given recently in America in that it was not arranged in the form of a street parade, but was presented upon the slope of a hill in Fairmount Park. The site of the pageant was at Belmont, the old home of Judge Peters, where were entertained many personages important in the revolutionary and early constitutional period. The giving of the pageant upon a plain, rather than in the form of a parade, made possible the development of many dramatic features, and also gave opportunity for artistic grouping of colors; indeed, it may be said that while the scenes of the pageant were as true to the historic facts probably, as it is possible to make them to-day, they were a greater success from the artistic and dramatic standpoint. It was the opinion of competent critics that the pageant was by all odds the most successful spectacle of the kind ever presented in America. Dr. Oberholtzer, who has made a careful study of the best European pageants, as well as of the recent ones in America, was supported in the organization of the affair by a committee of public-spirited citizens and by an organization known as the Historical Pageant Association, and so great was the popular interest in the pageant that three additional performances were given beyond those originally planned.

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No. 2. View of the capitol building about 1812. No. 3. View of the White House, in 1799, before its occupation by President Adams, in 1800.

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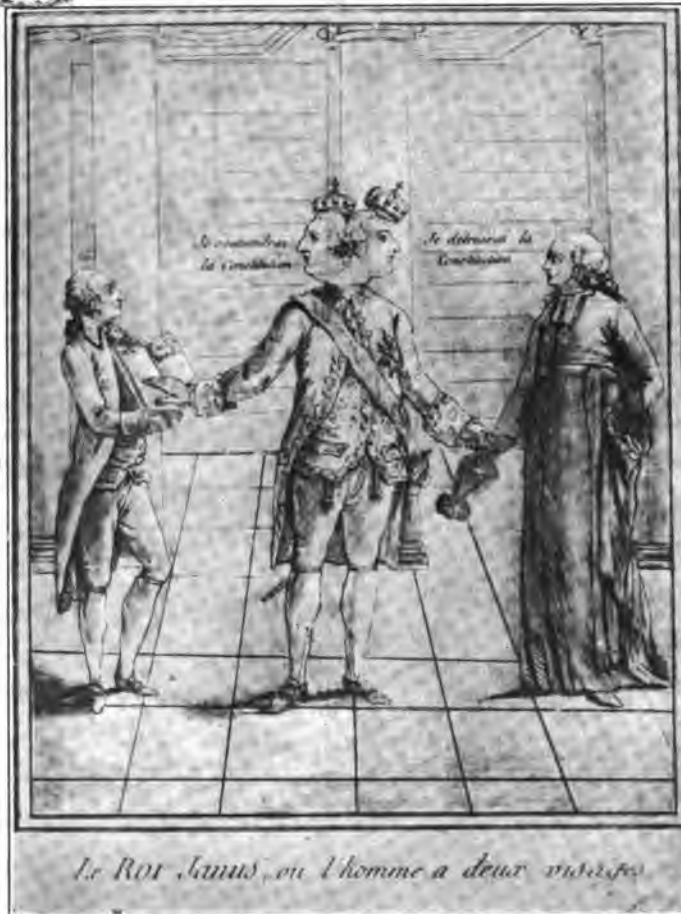
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CARTOON OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION—LOUIS XVI. AS KING JANUS
(SEE PAGE 215.)

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Illustrative Material on the French Revolution

What We can Learn from It Respecting the Revolution

BY ERNEST F. HENDERSON, Ph. D.

How to make history of absorbing interest to the pupil, that is one of the chief problems of the teacher. There are, indeed, tasks that must be accomplished whether they are pleasant or not, but history does not lend itself well to such treatment. The study of it must bring pleasure or it will not bring profit; it must kindle the imagination or the words are meaningless. There indeed lies one of the chief merits of history as a study; it broadens the mental horizon much as does a journey through strange lands; it works on our emotions as well as on our perceptions. Its acquisitions are for all time; they give us material for daily thought, for daily comparison with the happenings around us. The

tages: firstly, the period teems with dramatic happenings and interesting personalities, and secondly, we have great quantities of illustrative material. Dayot's folio volume, for instance, costing only 20 francs, is full of all kinds of reproductions. Travellers in Paris flock to the Musée Grévin to see the chamber of horrors; more profit still can be drawn from the Musée Carnavalet, the museum at the "tennis-court," and the exhibition room of the National Archives. A few years ago even Wanamaker's, the great department store in New York, gave up a part of its valuable floor space to an exhibition of revolutionary relics.

Granted then the importance of the subject—is all this



more knowledge of history we possess, the more sound are apt to be our reasonings, the more valuable our judgments.

I am often astonished at the scant treatment accorded in our schools and colleges to so important a period as that of the French Revolution. How much more intelligently should we regard the modern revolutions—the Russian, the Servian, the Persian, the Chinese—were we familiar with the treatment of the same problems by the great mother of all revolutions! How salutary for the crude young socialists around us to know that many of their ideas were then tried and found utterly impracticable!

The French Revolution as a study, has two great advan-

illustrative material of any help to us in trying to understand it? I think it is. My eyes were first opened to this fact when once I visited a Genevan professor being in despair over the meaning of a passage in some memoirs. In two minutes with the aid of Dayot, he had made everything clear to me.

For the sake of convenience we may divide our material into seven categories:

I. *Views of streets, public squares, gardens, etc., where great events took place.* We can follow, for instance, the Place de la Concorde through its various transformations—as the Place Louis XV. with the great equestrian statue of

that monarch; as the Place de la Revolution with the statue of the Goddess of Liberty before which Madame Roland made her famous remark, or with the guillotine on which perished Louis XVI., and as the Place de la Concorde. There are numerous representations of the Place de Gréve with its famous lantern-bracket—from which swung so many of the earliest victims of the revolution; of the Champ de Mars with its great altar to the fatherland, where took place the Fete of Federation. On the altar Talleyrand and three hundred patriotic priests performed mass in the presence of three hundred thousand spectators. We have the Place des Victoires, the Place des Piques (Place Vendôme) the Porte St. Antoine, the Square surrounding the Pan-

Marat's house, Robespierre's house, the halls of the National Assemblies: all can and should be made actualities to us and not mere vague conceptions. Would one believe it, I once had a pupil who mixed up the Palace of Versailles with the Bastille and imagined that Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette were sitting trembling behind the walls of the latter fortress while it was being besieged! You can not be too definite with untrained minds. The Bastille has been so often and so well represented that a perfectly clear image of it should always be in the mind.

III. *Portraits.* We can know the faces of great actors in history as well as we do those of contemporary celebrities. The portraits were just as well painted and often better reproduced. And what an impression they can make upon one! What flabbiness and weakness we see in the face



MARIE ANTOINETTE AS QUEEN.



MARIE ANTOINETTE AS WIDOW.

theon, the garden of the Tuileries, the gardens of the Palais Royal. There is the Rue de Sicile, too, with the very spot where Madame de Lamballe was torn to pieces by the mob; the Rue St. Honoré with the death-carts passing by; the Champs Elysées and many others.

II. *Public Buildings.* More clearly than any description views of the Palace of Versailles, enable us to follow the events of October 5th and 6th. Did we not see before us the different gates, the different railings, the different doors, the balcony, it would be impossible to understand the happenings. A visit to the palace itself is about as good a lesson in history as any one could desire. It is the same with the Palais Royal, while, if the palace of the Tuileries has vanished, we nevertheless have views that help us to reconstruct it. The Hotel de Ville, the Jacobin Club, the Couciergerie, the Luxembourg, the different prisons,

of Louis XVI! Marie Antoinette appears in a hundred different guises. We can follow her from her rather vapid and expressionless youth through the period of her beauty and gaiety, in every sort of rich and gorgeous costume until we find her, as Prieur, the juror of the Revolutionary Tribunal depicted her, in her widow's weeds with dimmed eye and sorrow-drawn face after the loss of all she held dear and after months of confinement in prison. We finally catch a glimpse of her, gaunt and rigid, a veritable old hag, as sketched by David, who sat at a window with a dame of more than doubtful reputation and watched the death-cart go by. Or take Monsieur and Madame Roland, the one like a stolid old horse, the other so radiantly beautiful. Well can we understand now how impossible it was for her to love him with any but a dutiful passion and why her heart was given to Buzot. Charlotte Corday is

quite as calm and lofty as the accounts of her would make us suppose, Marat quite as ugly and leering. A glance at Robespierre's countenance makes us understand how Merlin de Thiouville could liken his expression to that of a tame cat, with, however, tigerish possibilities. Mirabeau is as shaggy, Danton as bull-faced as we are led to expect. We have portraits of Fouquier-Tienville the relentless public prosecutor, of Carrier the infamous drowner and of more than a thousand deputies.

IV. *Fashion plates and engravings of costumes.* We have ball-dresses of huge circumference, the decorations of which are like garlands hung on a dome. For the beginning of the revolution, too, we have women in street-costumes with great paniers and flounces and with muffs quite as enormous and hats as extraordinary as any that are worn to-day. There are pictures of head dresses, of the kind that stood up three feet high and expanded at the top so that you could have representations on them of the gardens of the Trianon or of a whole fleet of ships. We have one called the "Coiffure aux charmes de la liberté" in which great bands of tri-colored ribbon play their part. We have men's costumes, too,—the dandy abbé, the swell in all the gorgeousness of a red plush *fraque* or again in half-mourning. We have the dress of ceremony of the deputies to the States-general—the robes of the clergy rich and trailing, the coats of the nobles faced with gold, their mantles of silk, their hats with plumes, their *cravates* of lace. We can contrast these with the plain black suits of the third estate, their cloaks of cloth, their *cravates* of muslin. We have uniforms, too, of the *gardes du corps*, of the Dragoons, of the Regiment of Flanders and finally of the National Guards. How colorless these troops would seem to us could we not visualize them!

V. *Representations of episodes of the Revolution.* I have before me one single series of sixty-four such depictions by Prieur who seems to have felt it his mission thus to perpetuate these events. There is much in the fêtes and celebrations of the time that would be absolutely incomprehensible to us did we not have sketches of what was happening. How, for instance, could we imagine the aspect of the great mountain erected over the altar of the Fatherland for the Fête to the Supreme Being—a mountain large enough to hold on its summit the more than 700 members of the National Convention? The illustrations show us the winding path that led behind paste-board crags and artificial trees, and, indeed, in one we can actually see the National Convention climbing it.

VI. *The symbolical or allegorical productions.* From these we learn the sentiments, the enthusiasms of the time. We learn to appreciate the poetic glamour that was over the whole, the atmosphere of exaltation that hid the brutal realities. Liberty becomes a real presence, now enthroned upon the top of Mt. Blanc and stretching out her arms over the universe, now shouldering a broken yoke, guiding the ship of state, alluring the soldier of despotism, flitting from place to place. It is the same with Equality and Fraternity. The emblem of the former is the lead and line, the crude carpenter's level of the day; that of the latter is the row of hearts. At the very last we see Equality balanced on the point of the level that crushes the heads of Robespierre and his adherents. France herself is often personified. There is an interesting representation where in the guise of a beautiful female with a cloth over her head she is smilingly submitting to the attacks of the Coalition, the different members of which have faces contorted with fury. But she goes on smiling and will not let them harm a single hair of her head. The "third estate" is another favorite of the symbolists: we have him awakening from his long slumber, casting off his chains and terrifying the other two estates; we have him piping for the nobles and clergy to dance, weighing them down on a see-saw, driving them in

a coach to the opening of the states-general at Versailles; we have him in various forms as oppressed and then triumphant and we have him finally, as a great sun rises from the waters and a new day dawns over France, advancing over severed heads and a tottering Bastille to join the king and reign with him according to the law.

Justice, Virtue, Fame, Concord, Unity, Indivisibility, Victory, Abundance, Reason,—all are shown in human form, as are also Envy, Hatred, Discord and other vices. Despotism, Federalism and the like are depicted under every guise of horrible monster.

Whole episodes are symbolized in these artistic productions which were often circulated at the expense of the government for the avowed purpose of awakening patriotic sentiments. We have the French nation forging away at the Constitution; we have it again battering down the remnants of feudalism, the breast plate of the knight, the mitre



MARIE ANTOINETTE AS PRISONER.

and crozier of the bishop; we have the foreigner quitting the land of slaves for the joyous land of liberty, the Austrian sentinel grounding arms at the sight of the tri-colored cockade, the patriotic priest happily taking the civic oath while the unpatriotic one, reduced to a mere skeleton, wanders out on the cold snow-clad hills where the wind whistles through his bones.

VII. *Satires and caricatures.* Of all the categories of illustrative material, this is one of the most interesting and not the least important. It was a new weapon that was thus thrown into the hands of the revolutionists and they made the very most of it. We find the Committee of Public Safety once paying the artist David, 3000 francs for two caricatures, one of which represented a turkey pulling George III. of England by the nose! We are so used to caricatures now that it is hard to realize what an effect this making fun of objects hitherto so sacred and revered must have produced. And some of the satires are full of a venom, a blood-thirstiness, a heartlessness that would not be countenanced to-day. Surely we are justified in thinking that

we can learn from this something of the spirit of the time. We have all sorts of jokes about severed heads. In the "Patriotic Calculator," for instance, a production issued after the murders in connection with the storming of the Bastille, we see the patriot with the heads on the table before him while he writes on a slate, "eight paid on account, twelve still due." Cruellest of all is a satire, that must have been issued in the very midst of the massacres of September, in which some clergy are represented as entering the building from which they never came forth alive with elongated noses. There is a text which implies that they may have laughed Friday but will have wept Monday!

Louis XVI. is once represented as a horned pig, Marie Antoinette as a pantheress and as a harpy. So bitter was the hatred against them at the last that even their final parting on the night before his execution is made the subject of an outrageous travesty.

Many of the satirical productions of course are in a lighter vein and some are really witty and amusing. We have Louis XVI. smilingly ratifying the Constitution apparently unaware that he is in a great iron cage; we have him dancing a tight-rope and bending over to give sweets to the people who clamor for more and more while an inscription tells him to look out for a false step; we have the foreign powers making it hot for the Jacobins, the Elector of Treves foaming at the mouth with rage because of the attitude of the National Assembly; we have fat prelates being squeezed thin or being toppled over by a blow under the chin; we have, finally, Samson the Executioner guillotining himself because he has guillotined about everybody else available.

In addition to the categories above mentioned there are of course, numerous objects of interest—coins, miniatures, relics, even revolutionary rebuses, calendars and the like. But a consideration of them would lead us too far.

College Entrance Examination Papers

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, NORMAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

At conventions of those who teach history, in fact whenever two or three of those interested in the subject are gathered together, four topics are frequently under discussion, and seem to be coming more and more into notice. These are, (1) the requirement from the pupil of independent or collateral reading, supplementary to the more clearly defined work of the course he is pursuing; (2) the introduction into the secondary schools of the study of economics, or at least the laying of greater stress in history courses upon the economic aspects of the evolution of society; (3) the study of geography as a back-ground for or as ancillary to the study of history, with a view to emphasizing rather than minimizing the importance of the study of geography; and (4) the study of the actual working of our government, an exercise commonly called civics when pursued in the schools and politics when pursued in the colleges. In June of 1912, I read for the College Entrance Examination Board several hundred papers in American History and Civics presented by candidates for admission to college. These candidates had studied in widely different portions of the country, and it occurred to me that other teachers of history might be interested in the light thrown upon the results we are obtaining in the country as a whole. With this in view I asked for the co-operation of several other readers¹ and we collated some facts which form the basis of the following remarks. Among the facts which are to be taken into consideration as we view the conditions that are indicated is the attitude of the readers toward certain types of questions and answers, since the credit which the readers believe should be given for this or that sort of information indicates the views of leading teachers, which in turn indicates the sort of work that is now generally to be expected from the schools that prepare for college, whether they consider such preparation their primary object or a mere byproduct of their preparation of youth for life.

The examination paper follows and I shall cite the questions by their numbers as given in the paper:

GROUP I. (Answer two questions.)

1. In what ways was English colonial policy in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries better than that of France? 511 (5)

¹ Assistance was rendered by Miss Elizabeth Briggs, Professors D. S. Muzzey and C. W. Spencer, and Doctors E. F. Humphrey and J. M. Mathews, of the Board's readers. They are, however, not to be regarded as agreeing with all the statements in this paper. On the contrary, some disagree very positively with the writer's notion in more than one particular.

2. Describe the principles of the Friends or Quakers, the founding of Pennsylvania, and its government to 1760. 334 (3)
3. What were the motives actuating the founders of four of the following colonies: Plymouth, Georgia, Maryland, Jamestown, New Netherland. 938 (9)

GROUP II. (Answer one question.)

4. Give an account of Genet's mission and of the foreign policy of Washington's second administration. 342 (3)
5. From what class in society did the Loyalists mainly come, why were they opposed to the Revolution, how were they treated, and what became of them? 492 (5)

GROUP III. (Answer three questions.)

6. Compare briefly the economic conditions of the North and the South at the opening of the Civil War. 682 (7)
7. Under what circumstances and when was the state of California admitted into the Union? 754 (8)
8. Compare the policies of the following presidents in making appointments to office: Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Cleveland. 618 (6)
9. (a) State the author and title of any book or books which you have used in addition to your text-book in connection with any one of the following topics: 256 (2)
 - (1) The life of an Englishman connected with American history.
 - (2) A battle or campaign of the American Revolution.
 - (3) A battle or campaign of the Civil War.
 - (4) Slavery.
 - (5) The Tariff.
 - (6) Social life in one of the Colonies.
- (b) Discuss the topic you have chosen, showing the results of your outside reading.

GROUP IV. (Answer one question.)

10. Compare the methods which the United States has employed (a) for the government of territory which has been contiguous and (b) for that which has been separated from her by the seas, and account for the differences. 464 (5)

11. Why has the Senate become a much more powerful body than the House of Representatives, and in what sense may it be said to have "usurped powers belonging to the House and the President?" 348 (3)

GROUP V. (*Answer one question.*)

12. On map 30 indicate as accurately as possible the possessions which the United States owns outside the limits of the states. In your answer-book state briefly the circumstances by which she came into control of each of these possessions. 691 (7)
13. On map 31 indicate approximately the areas west of the Alleghany Mountains which were settled between 1783 and 1803, and between 1803 and 1820. In your answer book account for the rapidity with which the later portions were settled. 104 (1)

After each question have been placed two numbers. The larger numbers were obtained as follows: One hundred papers above the passing mark² were selected at random from the records of various readers. Some of these papers contained answers to one question and some to another among the alternatives allowed. The number given indicates the total scored in a hundred papers by each question, a perfect answer to a question being reckoned at ten. It was assumed that such a statement would give some idea of the knowledge in possession of the typical American school boy on the several topics, a fair assumption being that a candidate who omits a question knows more about the alternate. The numbers in parentheses were obtained from a different set of papers, also above the passing mark. If a perfect paper were reckoned at 100 and each question at ten, these numbers in parentheses represent the value of the answer to each question in the typical paper.

As one glances over the questions the high credit given to answers 3, 6, 7, and 12 at once demands attention. Question 3 could be answered by the elementary school graduate without much difficulty, and it was answered with fair correctness by nearly all the passable papers. The reason why question 6 seems to have evoked such satisfactory answers will be referred to below, under the remarks on economics in the schools. Neither question 7 nor question 12 is particularly difficult for high school graduates, and furthermore the former was attempted in order to avoid question 9 and the latter to avoid question 13 both of which are referred to below. We may therefore turn our attention to the four pedagogical problems indicated above and see what light the answers to this paper throws upon them.

(1) Question 9 was evidently framed to give the candidate an opportunity to display the results of his independent or "outside" reading, and the examiner who has heard much at gatherings of teachers about the method of testing collateral reading pricks up his ears with expectancy. The question evidently has in view a student working somewhat systematically along the lines of a standard text-book or syllabus, and then under the encouragement and stimulus of his teacher making excursions for his own delectation into contemporary accounts or larger treatises bearing on the subjects suggested by the more systematic work. To satisfy the demands of such readers "source-

books" and "readings" have been prepared in considerable number. One expects to find the titles of such source-books mentioned now and then in the answers to this question, but one is destined to disappointment. One has a right to expect the pupil who has completed a course in the fourth year of the secondary school, meeting his teacher five times a week for about thirty-six weeks, to know the title and author of some other real work on American history or government than his text-book, but this righteous expectation is not met by reality so far as those candidates who present themselves to the College Entrance Examination Board are concerned.

Most of the candidates avoided this question 9 altogether. When it was answered and the answers were worth any consideration at all, the majority gave Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Among the other authors and titles were Miss Mary Johnson's novels, "Up from Slavery," by Jacob Riss, (sic), Miss Young's "What a Boy saw in the War," and the like. School text-books were now and then mentioned, but were not credited. Some candidates of economical turn utilized their preparation for the examination in English and submitted Burke's speech on Conciliation with America, gratuitously. One is disposed to wonder if it would not be advisable for history teachers' associations to accept the lead of the teachers of English and publish a list of readings on which the examination questions would be based. Attention may be called to the list published on pages 123 et seq. of the syllabus for secondary schools of New York for history and social science. Certainly some teachers are not drawing a very clear line between fiction and history, and the fiction recommended in some cases is certainly not the sort that will encourage dispassionate weighing of facts, which is one of the objects of history teaching.

(2) There is considerable pressure at present for the introduction of economics as a separate subject into the secondary schools, and its recognition as a subject for College entrance credits. On the other hand there is also some tendency perceptible to teach a good deal of economics with the history under a sort of economic interpretation of history, using economic relations to replace the drum and trumpet history of our fathers. Neither of these tendencies seems to have taught the student the meaning of the word economic as yet. Question 6 calls for a knowledge of the economic condition in the country about the year 1860, the answers generally discussed the preparedness for war in the North and South at the outbreak of hostilities. One may easily doubt whether any credit should be given for such an answer, since it has nothing to do with the question. If a problem in mathematics is set and the student ignores this problem and solves another, is it the custom to give him credit for the correct addition and subtraction, or other mathematical processes used in solution of the problem which was not called for? If history is ever to be regarded as a subject that is really useful as a means of discipline, its requirements must be set up on stricter lines than they are at present. The generosity of the readers in judging this question accounts for the high grades received by the answers in the 100 typical papers. Where a student discussed preparedness for war, entirely ignoring the word economic, and gave several facts which might be regarded as economic factors such as the existence of railroads, and the conditions of the food-supply, very considerable credit was given for the answer, even though in many cases this information was buried in a mass of statements about arsenals, ideals of education, marksmanship, etc. This is not meant as a criticism of the readers. If we read with the strictness that would be used in some disciplinary subjects, the mortality of the candidates would be so great that both schools and colleges might feel that the usefulness of the Board was greatly over-estimated.

²Only those papers were selected which received a passing mark or better, because it is well known that many candidates try the history examination at a venture without having had anything like adequate preparation. They would not think of doing such a thing in the case of physics, geometry or Greek; and there is really no reason why they should do so in the case of history if they had any idea what history is. But they do, nevertheless, and it would be unfair to base a judgment of our history teaching on the average paper. That they do is not conjecture on my part. There are those who ignore this fact, and therefore claim that the candidates are judged too severely in this subject when only about forty per cent. of the papers receive the passing mark.

If the economic interpretation of history is important, or if it is desirable to introduce economics as a separate subject into the schools, it certainly seems reasonable to insist that pupils obtain a knowledge of the meaning of the word economic,³ sufficiently definite to enable them to answer a simple question containing the word and not wander afield stumbling upon facts here and there by accident, and receiving credit therefor. This subject, economics in the schools, is being studied by a committee of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States, which hopes to submit a helpful report in the not very very distant future.

(3) Questions 12 and 13 demand knowledge of geography, and 13 was generally omitted. In the records of a reader selected at random, out of 34 papers only seven tried this later question, and the reader gave a zero to four of the seven efforts. Out of the 100 papers question 12 received nearly seven times as much credit as question 13. The readers felt that 13 was not happily expressed, several of them going so far as to say that they themselves would be unable to give a satisfactory answer to it, even if their own interpretation of the wording were accepted, and they felt that the wording was unclear. Therefore, the most liberal estimate was put upon attempts to answer it. Question 12 is an easy one, and full credit was given to a paper that gave four possessions—e.g., Alaska, Panama, Philippines, Hawaii, with reasonably full accounts of their acquisition. This may be regarded as too liberal, possibly, in view of the fact that such an answer omits a considerable number of possessions and the question calls for all of them.

The impression received by the reader of these answers to the geography questions is that the high school graduate knows almost nothing about the subject, and that it is taught with entire inadequacy. It bears out the conclusions recently expressed by a French educator that our teaching of geography is the weakest point in our secondary school work. The liberality of the readers to the candidate was further apparent in the tendency to give credit for the circumstances under which a possession was obtained, when the possession itself was incorrectly located. It is submitted that this question calls for geography primarily, and that no credit should be given when the locations are incorrect. For example, when the Philippines are put in the West Indies, should the credit be given under this paper for an account of our acquisition of the islands? Should a paper giving the correct location of four possessions be given as much credit as one that locates correctly seven, as some did? No criticism is intended of the attitude of the readers, but is not their attitude a commentary on the knowledge commonly expected of high school graduates as to the political geography of their own country? A committee of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States is now at work on the very difficult problem of getting into the pupils' mind some ideas of the earth's surface and its political divisions, and I bespeak for them the cordial support of all teachers.

(4) The remaining topic is civics, which to prevent confusion with constitutional history, may be defined as actual government, or dynamic government, government as it is at present as opposed to what the constitution makers hoped it would be. In this division may be included question 8, since the civil service is one of the more important, if not

the most important, aspect of republican government. It will be observed that the answers to this question received considerable credit, but they were read with more than considerable generosity. Assuming the question to be valued at 10, 4 credits were assigned to Cleveland, 3 to Jackson, 2 to Lincoln and 1 to Jefferson. Our tendency to teach a sort of false patriotism and ethics based on false information appears in the answers relative to Lincoln, who is pictured as far above party interests, appointing men with a view only to the conduct of each particular office, and removing no one except the evidently vicious or incompetent. Not more than two per cent. of the candidates, probably, realized the fact that a large number of political removals took place in his administration. Jefferson's patriotism is praised in the answer, "Jefferson refused to appoint his friends to office, saying that he could get better material elsewhere." Few of the candidates know anything of the policy of Jefferson or Lincoln, which fact seems to have justified the assignment of credits in the grading. Almost all knew of some connection between Jackson and the spoils system, though some called it the "spoils kitchen system," and many knew that Cleveland bore some relation to civil service reform. It is surprising that some teachers even confuse the expression "civil service" with "civil service reform," and speak of the "civil service" as beginning after the reconstruction period. Many of the good papers in answering this question dealt only with Cabinet appointments.

Civics proper, however, is grouped by the examiners under questions 10 and 11. The former calls for some knowledge of our methods of governing dependencies, which is one of the grand divisions of the science of government. Therefore, the teacher should know the subject, but in many cases does not. As a result, as our papers showed, the pupil is ignorant of it also. Scarcely 10 per cent. of those who attempted question 10 and wrote passing papers mentioned the ordinance of 1787, which is the foundation of our colonial policy for contiguous territory. Of course, the question became more difficult than it would otherwise have been from the fact that a number of the candidates do not seem to have been familiar with the word contiguous, and the phrasing of the question left some little doubt in the minds of the readers as to what was actually meant.

Question 11 is more difficult, and still more fault was found with the expression of it than with that of question 10. Even conceding some obscurity to the question and some difficulty to the subject, still it does not seem unreasonable to expect those who have taken a high school course in civics to know such elementary facts as that the Senate has usurped, very largely, the appointing power from the Executive, and the control of finance from the House of Representatives. One must avoid even the appearance of criticising the particular teachers who prepared these candidates, or even seeming to insinuate that the schools are not doing their part as fully as the colleges or universities. The fact is what we must note—the fact that our youth are graduating from excellently equipped high schools with practically no useful knowledge of the machinery of government which they are to be expected to help to run. The fact is indisputable but none the less lamentable.⁴

The teaching of civics to young people in school is of

³ It may be noted that several readers thought that questions calling for "economic conditions" demanded too much maturity on the part of the candidates. Objection was made to the word "economic" on this ground, and the same objection was made to the use of the expressions "contiguous territory," "colonial policy," "foreign policy," etc. Such criticism is not complimentary to the minds of boys and girls of eighteen years, and it is not certain that the fault may not be found in methods of instruction rather than in immaturity of mind.

⁴ Attention may be called to a paper printed in the Proceedings of the American Political Science Association, Vol. II, pp. 207-228, dealing with the amount of knowledge of government possessed by those who enter college classes in political science. A committee of the American Political Science Association has recently been appointed under the leadership of Professor George H. Haynes, of Worcester Polytechnic Institute, to study the methods of teaching civics, whence will doubtless come some suggestions useful to us all.

course extremely difficult, but one wonders whether the lack of success is due altogether to the difficulties inherent in the task. Some hypothetical answers may be suggested. Do not schools attempt to do the work in a shorter time than is had in view by the question papers? Do not many schools attempt to cover American History and Civics in three hours a week, which is about 60 per cent. of the time they are supposed to give to these subjects? Do not teachers attempt to teach a great mass of constitutional detail, such as the age of Senators, which is comparatively worthless; instead of concentrating their attention on the repeated illustration of the real difficulties of government, such as that inherent in securing efficient public servants by appointment? In the third place, are not the civics classes too often "held" by persons who know nothing about the subject they are teaching, being primarily teachers of mathematics or Latin, and receiving classes in civics to fill up their schedule? Of course, there can be no doubt that the pupils would be far better off playing marbles or jack-straws than "studying" civics under such teachers.

There follows a suggestion quoted from the letter of a teacher of long and successful experience: "The requirement in civics amounts to nothing; the teachers do not take it seriously, they use no separate text for its preparation, and there is a strong inclination to regard the clauses of the Constitution as amply sufficient, and yet civics in its very essence is a study of how government is actually working under the Constitution, and not how it ought to work in theory. I feel more strongly than ever that the College Entrance Examination Board should set a special examination in civics, as they do now in economics, and divorce from American history any statement that civics is required in connection with its study."

A few general impressions brought away from the reading may be added. Many of the old errors survive. The Quakers are still left in peace by their Indian neighbors only because the kindly Friends had bought land from the savages and treated them fairly, the cowed and humiliated condition of the Indians in the Delaware valley being left out of account. Now one would not consider this fact about the Indians of great importance to school children, but if

their relation to the Quakers is to be treated, it should be treated truthfully. The old overdrawn and therefore false estimates of men are still with us. The men of the North in the Civil War are either strong, sturdy, vigorous and patriotic; or they are all the anemic weaklings produced by unremitting toil in stuffy offices. The men of the South are either chivalrous cavaliers; or they are lazy, drunken, card-playing aristocrats, lying abed until nearly noon under the ministrations of Negro slaves. Maryland was settled only by Catholics. There were no small farmers in the South in ante-bellum days. Silly jingoism, patriotic slush, are still engendered in "history" classes to send forth ridiculous chauvanists as representative Americans. This last difficulty is not confined to our American schools, however, which fact may indicate that to correct it one must improve human nature somewhat. Dates or any other indication of a sense of chronology are lamentably lacking, despite the urgent demand in the paper for those dates which the candidates regard as important. One wonders if it will be necessary to return to the old question containing "ten important dates." One is not able to see what in this day of anti-militarism is the use of asking in question 9 for battles or campaigns, or permitting the candidate to use information about them as facts important for the average citizen.

In conclusion, it should be added that those who have read these papers for a number of years agree that conditions have improved somewhat, and that the answer papers each year show better work on the part of pupil and teacher. This fact is present in the mind of the writer,⁵ and this paper is not meant as an accusation against the hundreds of conscientious men and women who are teaching history in our secondary schools. It is written with the hope that it will help us all along, however little, on the road toward training our youth through the study of history to use the sifted and unvarnished truth; and to understand and love our country with all its faults clearly and fully in mind.

⁵ It is also evident, of course, that the false patriotism and weak geography is often to be laid at the door of those who handle the pupils before they reach the high school.

Teaching of Mediaeval History in the Schools*

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For our present purpose we shall use the word "mediaeval" in its largest sense to include the whole period of time from the end of the Roman dominion in the West to the Protestant Reformation. In your practice as teachers it will, of course, be necessary to refine upon this definition. You will have to make clear to your pupils that the institutions of ancient Rome continue to affect profoundly the life of the European peoples long after the forms of the Roman imperial administration have passed away, and also that the ideas and the methods of modern life begin to influence Europe long before they have succeeded in driving out those of the strictly mediaeval period. In fact the historical teacher finds himself slowly coming to the conclusion that "mediaeval" means rather a certain set of ideas and forms of society than a period of time. He becomes interested, not so much in fixing definite chronological limits to the mediaeval period, as in determining with clearness just what are mediaeval ideas and forms, no matter where he finds them.

It is this interest in the institutional aspect of mediaeval study that must be our guide in the present inquiry. Our object to-day is to ascertain, if we can, to what extent the

study of mediaeval history is adapted to the secondary stage of education, what are its peculiar difficulties and the best ways of overcoming these. That this study has difficulties peculiar to itself cannot be denied. Whatever is worth doing is difficult. It is not a question of selecting the easy things for our young people to do, but of making ourselves and them familiar with the things we think it wise for them to learn, and then helping them to overcome difficulties in the most educating way. When we speak of Mediaeval History as a difficult subject for young students, we mean, necessarily, that it is difficult in comparison with some other periods of history, and we have some ideas as to what these difficulties are. Let us, therefore, begin with a few characterisations of the middle period which shall bring out its points of contrast with those that precede and those that follow it.

If we look at Ancient History as a whole, we find it presented to us as a series of vast world-empires, one succeeding the other as it were by a fixed law of inheritance of power. Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, each resting upon its control of the great Tigris-Euphrates valley and reaching out beyond this in its desperate struggle to dominate the whole accessible world. Then Greece, using the method

* See editorial note on page 228.

of colonisation and the weapons of Alexander to spread even more widely an empire none the less effective and less enduring because it is an empire of ideas rather than of political administration. Last of all Rome, beginning with a city and expanding that city government until it takes in the whole civilized world, adopting the administrative methods of the East, utilizing the culture of the Hellenic peoples, but infusing through it all that amazing capacity for law and order that makes its special contribution to the history of mankind. Oriental, Greek, Roman, unlike as they are in the essence of their thought and in their conception of social ideals are alike in this, that each in its time claims sovereignty over the whole world of thinking men and makes its claim good. Under the domination of this idea there is room for only one sovereign people at a time. The centre of power changes from the Tigris-Euphrates to the shores of the eastern Mediterranean and again to take in the whole of the Mediterranean basin; but the idea of power does not essentially change.

At every stage in this progression of Ancient History we have to concern ourselves mainly with one great dominant state and its struggles to maintain its hold over others. It all maps itself out in great broad features on the page of history. Its movement is like a continuous triumphal march with a splendor and a dignity that appeal even to the mind of youth. Its several stages seem like so many natural chapters ready for the historian's hand. There is about it the simplicity of every great epic. It can be put in language that is easily intelligible, for the conflict for power is as familiar to the school-boy as to the philosopher.

If now for a moment we make a similar comparison with the quality and the movement of Modern History we reach a similar result. In speaking of Modern History we mean here the history of Europe since about the time of the Protestant Reformation to the middle of the last century. If we were to extend its meaning to the second half of the nineteenth century we should have to include in it several factors that are likely to find their place in future classifications of history rather at the beginning of an epoch, whose limits and whose character no man of to-day can venture even to suggest. But, confining ourselves to the three centuries following the Peace of Augsburg, we may fairly describe Modern History as the story of a family of independent states, on a similar level of culture and representing each the same general theory of a state. In each we find, no matter what its form of government, a well-recognized governmental system over against a body of subjects who accept its action and support its policy with decent unanimity. It is acknowledged, as it had never been in Europe before, that the government has a right to the control of the resources of the state in men and money. To question this right, to refuse to pay taxes or to serve in the army or to obey the decisions of the courts is treason everywhere and may be punished with the approval of the body of the people. Each state in this modern family has a right to its existence, and this right is guaranteed to it by the consent of its neighbors. There arises from this mutual guarantee what we call the system of the "Balance of Power." Any state seeking to disturb this balance by too great gains of power will be resisted by a combination among the rest, and it is such attempts, met by such combinations that form the larger part of the outward history of the modern peoples. The form of the modern governments is mainly the monarchical, and the preservation of the monarchical idea against the attacks of growing popular sentiment is one of the strongest bonds that hold the governments in equilibrium.

It is obvious that this is a social order much more complicated than that of the ancient world, and yet the ideas it expresses are almost as easily understood by the modern

student. We know almost instinctively what such a state is like. This modern world still exists. We read in every newspaper of the balance of power or the "European Concert." We ourselves feel that passionate instinct of independence which leads every state to resent the slightest encroachment upon its right to manage its own affairs. We know the feeling of loyalty, not to any man, but to the idea of the state itself which leads men to throw away their lives and their fortunes in its support. After all, we feel that in the midst of the infinite complication of detail, the motives of this modern world, like those of the ancient, are comparatively simple.

In both these fields of history the terminology is fairly intelligible. We know, almost by instinct, the meaning of such words as "king," "subject," "Senate," "constitution," "army," "civil service," "taxes," "court." The king is a person, who by a sort of a divine right, may give orders that will be obeyed. His word is feared; his will is law; his person is sacred. A subject is one whose business is to obey. He owes allegiance to the king and to no one else; he has such rights as the government allows him and no others. Taxes are regular payments demanded by government from property to enable it to carry on its beneficent work; and so on. These are familiar things. They can be explained in sufficient detail even to quite young persons, and the political issues that shape themselves about these things are intelligible even to them.

If now we turn to the field of mediæval study we find all this changed at once. If we compare the movement of mediæval history with that of the ancient world we are at once impressed by its lack of great leading features that map it out and command our attention. In place of that march of empires in splendid progression, each taking up the mission of civilization and handing it on to its successor, we find from the close of the Roman period, a mass of struggling powers without apparent aim, with little consciousness of their own identity, clinging blindly to their own savage traditions while at the same time they are seeking to adjust themselves to the strange civilization which they have conquered. The units of history are no longer great territorial sovereignties, but little groups of individuals, thrown together by the accidents of war and fighting for their corporate existence. England lying somewhat outside the melee of continental struggle, yet becomes the battleground of Kelt and Saxon and Norman. France emerges from the wrestling of Gallo-Roman, Goth, Frank, Burgundian and Hun into the outward semblance of the ancient Gaul, but with a unity made unstable by the persistent claims of local right. Germany is a loose federation of tribes, kindred indeed in blood, but fiercely tenacious of tribal rights and accepting the fiction of unity under the Empire only so long as it costs them little sacrifice of these. Italy is for fifteen hundred years politically nothing but a geographical expression for a group of local powers with no element of unity except the sham Empire in its fitful demonstrations of an authority it could never maintain. Spain is a mere collection of separate states without even a pretence of unity.

How are we as teachers to present these manifold confusions to our pupils in such fashion that they can gain clear and leading ideas which may serve them to make the needed connection between the simpler conditions of the ancient and of the modern world? At first thought the attempt seems well-nigh hopeless, and it is not strange that the opinion has gone abroad that it is not worth while to make it. We need feel neither surprise nor discouragement that so many have taken the short and easy way of calling it all the "Dark Ages" and letting it go at that. All things are dark that we do not understand, and it is doubtless easier not to try to understand than to make the

effort; but if it is true, as we have so often been telling each other since Droysen taught us the word, that the object of historical study is to investigate in order that we may understand, then surely we should not give way to apparent difficulties but face them and so overcome them.

The first difficulty comes from the distraction of the pupil's mind due to the scattering of interest. His inclination is to wonder what this medley of aimless warfare is all about. He searches, as we all do in all our studies, for fixed points on which he may concentrate his thought; but he cannot find them. Nothing seems to mean quite what it ought to mean. France is not France; Italy is not Italy; the Empire has no territory. He reads about a war between France and England, but when he looks up his France on the map, he finds that the greater part of it is England. The ruler of Flanders, he reads, is a subject of the king of France, but Flanders is fighting on the English side. There seems to be no relation between the ideas of territory and of sovereignty. A part of this confusion is due to the paucity of language. The people who made the history of the Middle Ages had no literary language of their own. They were obliged to borrow the language of the conquered but triumphant Romans, and this has perpetuated through the middle period a terminology usually inaccurate and often false. Take, for example, the word "king," a word of such evil import, throughout the Roman period, that no one ever dared to call himself by it. It was reserved for leaders of "barbarian" peoples and, so used, it fixed itself in the writings of Romans, upon the chiefs of the Germanic tribes which were to be the makers of mediæval history. It carried with it a certain undefined sense of divine right to rule, and in this sense it has been carried over into modern times, so that each one of us comes inevitably to associate with it pretty clear and very advanced notions of actual power. But now the student of the Middle Ages, as he meets the word "king" and looks for the attributes of royalty, finds nothing but the empty name and forms. In fact, the king, throughout the Middle Ages and in every country was regarded by the really strong persons in the state as an outsider, always trying to enforce rights that did not belong to him and tolerated only because he was at times a convenient agent in guaranteeing their own rights. He was not to be trusted with the realities of power lest he should grow too great. The forms he might have, so long as they did not come to stand for costly sacrifices on their part. What is a young pupil to think when he comes to such imbecile rulers as these? He must be moved first to contempt for them and then to wonder why the land did not rise and choose for itself kings that would really rule.

Still more confusing is the idea of the subject. We think of the subject as the man directly responsible to his government, owing it military service, taxes and obedience to the judgments of its courts. The mediæval subject had no one of these qualities. He had, in the ordinary course of things, no dealings with his government. He could not be compelled into its armies; he was not called upon to pay taxes directly into its treasury, and its courts could seldom reach him to punish his crimes or compel him to do right by his neighbor. In all these relations of life his position was dictated, not by his membership in the body of citizens of the state, but by his personal relation to some intermediate person between him and the government. He was not primarily, as was the ancient Roman, and as is the modern man, a citizen of his country, but primarily he was a vassal of a lord. Only as he fulfilled his duty as a vassal did he enter into the bond of citizenship. What was a legislature in the Middle Ages? Books are full of such words as "*senatus*," "*placitum*," "*concilium*," denoting some form of assembly of privileged persons giving advice to kings or princes, but in the sense in which we understand the word

"legislature," as a body having a right either to make laws or to confirm them, the thing is hardly found in the Middle Ages. Law was almost wholly a matter of precedent or custom, interpreted by the courts without learned assistance and growing according to the needs of a growing civilization without much direction from above. The assembly of the people was an irregular gathering of the fighting men called to take council with the king as to the campaigning of the coming year. Only in the latter part of the middle period do we find, in the English parliament, the French Estates General and the German Diet the first feeble beginnings of legislatures in the modern sense.

And then, the army. Our pupil naturally thinks of an army as a body of soldiers under strict command, bound to serve until the object for which they are enlisted is accomplished and, whether professional or volunteer, forming a solid material force on which the government can rely. He imagines such a force as necessarily divided into orderly groups, legions, divisions, companies or what not under a well-ordered system of officers in regular grades. He begins his reading of mediæval history with such ideas in mind, only to discover that nothing of all this is true. Wars enough there are indeed, but of national armies, serving for great patriotic ends and bound to their service by the sense of duty to their government, he finds hardly a trace. Like everything else in this topsy-turvy world the army seems to be little more than a chance gathering of fighting men thrown together by accidents that seem to have little relation to the really great questions of politics. Its methods of action are a sort of magnified duelling; its terms of service are short and determined by contracts that have nothing to do with the immediate ends of the present conflict.

Finally, if our pupil gets so far as to think about the question of a judicial system, he finds courts of law enough, but to his surprise they seem to have nothing to do with the government of the land. They are in the hands of a multitude of princes, lay and clerical, who administer, not a general law, but the customs of the provinces they represent. If, over all these, he gets glimpses of a king's justice now and then, he is surprised to find this the weakest element in the whole system, regarded as an intrusion and only to be enforced by special and fitful displays of the royal power.

So far, then, we seem to be offering to our pupil only a bundle of negations. If we are to help him, we must find many positive things to tell him, and we can justify ourselves as teachers only in so far as we do this. What are some of the positive aids we can supply to his inexperience? In the first place our aim should be so far as possible to give him certain points of unity and simplicity to which he can cling in the midst of the complexities and contradictions we have been considering. It will help if we can show him that there are some great universal ideas and institutions that last through all the shiftings and confusions of the middle period.

First:—The transition from Roman to mediæval times can be put before him in fairly large features. The movement of events during the period of the migrations is along tolerably simple lines. There are a few great peoples of related origin moved by a common impulse and following similar paths in their occupation of the Roman inheritance. Their advance may be treated partly from the Roman side, not, as in Gibbon's dramatic picture, so as to give an impression of decline and decay, but so as to connect with the pupil's previous study of Roman history and to show as many as possible of the constructive effects of Rome upon the life of the new Europe. The principle of unity which he has been accustomed to see in the Roman Empire, he can be taught to find in the new religious institutions

which are making of the populations an essentially Christian community. As the papal organization begins to shape itself in the West from the time of Leo the Great in the fifth century, he can be shown that the real succession of the Roman Empire is to be found in the Roman Church. The vast papal influence, as shown in such personalities as Gregory I. at the beginning of the seventh, Nicholas I. in the middle of the ninth and Gregory VII. in the second half of the eleventh century, can be so kept in the centre of his reading that it will supply the element of unity which is otherwise wanting. Such a book, for example, as Milman's "Latin Christianity" is no less a political history of Europe than a story, as its sub-title would indicate, of the Great Latin Patriarchate. So at a later period Creighton's "History of the Papacy during the Reformation" is really a sketch of European affairs during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. It is not too much for the young pupil's comprehension that all the peoples of Europe, divided as they are by nationalities and by social classes, are all united in this one great common possession of a religion and a culture derived from Rome and holding them still, after generations of separation in an ideal attachment to something they feel to be higher and better than anything in their present world. So far as the immediate policy of the Papacy itself is concerned, that is quite simple. From Leo I. to Boniface VIII. it pursues the same ends. It aims to bring all the peoples of Europe into one kingdom of God. It claims the right to define this kingdom, and it does this after the method of the times. It utilizes every religious and social and political movement of the mediæval peoples to enforce anew this ideal of a vast Christian State, governed in the last resort by an appeal to its own divinely constituted tribunal. This is a splendid conception, no less grand in its outline than the notions of world sovereignty in the kingdoms of the East or in the Roman Empire itself. That is one of the elements of unity and simplicity that can be made intelligible to the school-boy.

But this mediæval world is not only a Christian world; it is also to a great extent a Teutonic world. To define it fully we have to call in the Teutonic-Christian federation of peoples. Germanic blood has come to dominate the North entirely and to affect profoundly the Romanic peoples of the South. This brings us to the second great principle of unity, the Mediæval Empire, that Holy Roman Empire of which it has, as you doubtless know, been cleverly said that it was neither holy nor Roman nor an empire. We might, if we chose, follow up that comment and show how little there was of holiness, of Romanness and of truly imperial quality in that very curious institution. But we are seeking here, not for minute analysis, but rather for the largest possible effects in presenting our picture to the mind of youth. One error we must, however, guard him against. He must not be allowed to get the idea that the empire of the Middle Ages was in any real sense the successor of the ancient empire of Rome. That some such notion was before the mind of Charlemagne is altogether possible, but how inadequate and fleeting it must have been is perfectly shown in Charlemagne's failure to provide in any effective way for its continuance. That Otto the Great had imperialist ideas and that these were carried by his grandson Otto III. to the point of a morbid absurdity; that Henry III. maintained a certain imperial dignity, and that Frederic Barbarossa exhausted the learning of the lawyers of Bologna to demonstrate his imperial rights in Italy,—all this cannot cover up the plain fact that, saving a few prerogatives of honor, no emperor of the Middle Ages ever was able and few attempted to carry out anything like a really imperial policy. What passes for such is in reality the attempt of a strong German kingdom to extend its control over Italy and as much of the borderland between itself and France as it could command. The accidental possession of

the Empire by Germany has confused this issue in the minds of modern students as it confused it in the practice of the time itself.

There is, however, one function of the Empire which is useful for our purpose as teachers. The claims of the papal *imperium* had to be met by some representation of the Christian world as a whole. Since the close of the Roman period, in which great councils under imperial protection and control had furnished such a representation, there had been no regular organ for the Christian consciousness of the West. Councils there had been, indeed, some of them claiming to be ecumenical; but, until the rising tide of nationalism should reach its height in the monarchy of Philip IV. of France and of Edward III. in England, there was no power that could claim the right to oppose papal aggression except the power of the Empire. That is the meaning of the activities of Otto and Henry III. and Frederic Barbarossa. Without in the least trying to minimize their purely political ambitions, we may safely define the meaning of their imperial quality as consisting chiefly in their work of protecting, disciplining and restraining their colleague in the mediæval system, the Pope at Rome. Thus limited we may use the idea of the Empire to help map out before our pupil's mind the course of mediæval development. It can be utilized, but it must not be thrust into the foreground of our teaching.

This brings us to the most difficult subject of all, the feudal society and feudal institutions. How shall we make these apparently hopeless complications clear to the young pupil? I think it would be a help if we could make him understand pretty early that this is only one of the feudalisms that have made their appearance in the world, and that it was the result of conditions similar to those that have produced a similar state of society in other places. For instance, it might clear his mind if we should remind him that for a long period, almost contemporaneous with the feudal period in Europe, the Japanese were going through a stage almost precisely like that which he is studying. If he could once get the idea that feudalism in both these cases arose from the overgrown power of a great landed nobility trying to increase its own advantage as against a formally recognized, but actually weak kingdom, he might perhaps escape the error that feudalism in Europe was the creation of any person or group of persons. It would then seem to him the natural result of certain conditions which would produce it or something like it wherever they might appear.

Then I think we should avoid, as far as possible, the use of terms in a misleading sense. We must, once for all, put out of our own and so out of our pupil's mind the notion that the king is the central figure of public life, the source of law, the emblem of power, the type of justice, the defender of religion. Books written under the influence of monarchical institutions have given a monarchical turn to the events of a period in which the monarchy is one of the least important elements of the state. They have filled our manuals with such phrases as "wicked barons," "lawless knights," "greedy abbots," "purse-proud burghers," "haughty nobles," "rebel chiefs," and so on. These are mainly conventional phrases borrowed from a different order of society. They imply that the feudal period was a time of anarchy, and that only in the revival of the ancient monarchical idea was there any safety for society or any hope of human progress. Now there is much to suggest such a view of the middle period; but if we go deep enough we learn that this is not a period of anarchy, but of a law which we do not readily understand. If it is the business of the historian to try to understand, then here it is our obvious duty, not to borrow handy phrases from traditional presentations of history, but to see whether we may not perhaps get new points of view that will be more instructive both to our pupils and to ourselves. To give an example:

Giesebrecht's *Deutsche Kaiserzeit* is one of the most readable and attaching pictures of the growth of the German kingdom from Otto to Frederic Barbarossa. It is written from a profound knowledge of the sources, with a plain desire to tell the truth and with much charm of style, but its representation of events in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries is largely colored by the reflection of events in the nineteenth. This mediæval empire is to be brought into as close relation as possible to the new German Empire of the Hohenzollerns. In the continual conflicts of the king with the heads of the ancient race-duchies it is always the king who is right and the dukes who are wrong. The king's right is a sacred thing and whoso resists it is a rebel and a traitor to the state. In fact the real centres of law and right are these same local powers, and it is the king who is the intruder. The true feeling of the time gathers about the representative of what stood for the popular cause and not about the idea of nationality as represented by the king. It is all expressed in that famous story of the king who summons his baron to war, and on his refusal threatens him: "By God! Sir Knight, you shall either go or hang!" But the knight answers: "By God! Sir King, I will neither go nor hang!" Such a defiance is not mere rebellion to a higher power, a mere exhibition of brutal bravado; it is the expression of a sense of law residing, not in the king, but in the people who counted. If it is hard for us to understand a society in which this state of things prevailed, we may help ourselves by remembering that it is just as hard for the average European of to-day to understand the working of our own democracy. He starts always from the government, and expects to find government regulating the minutest interests of society. The idea of self-help, which seems to us the simplest condition of social well-being, is to him a mystery which often, after years spent in our midst, remains as profound as ever.

Now in trying to present feudal society to the pupil it may be helpful to follow certain details of the feudal relation itself. First there is the element of personal attachment of the vassal to his lord. It is true, there is no precise analogy to this relation in our modern life, but it contains an idea so universally human, that it should not be difficult to put it in language. It is the mediæval expression of that quality of personal leadership which in every community from the school to the State is bound to have its effect. No matter how it is hedged in by rules it will out, and we have the school hero, the organizer of business enterprises, the party boss, the religious leader. This is the quality of the feudal chieftain, actual success in life gradually crystallizing into hereditary rights, which, however, must be maintained by continuous capacity or they will be lost. It is the figure of the strong man making himself felt among men of lesser parts. Then comes in with this personal element the economic. The strong man gets his reward in the commodity which was most plentiful and most rewarding, namely in land, and thus we are brought to the territorial aspect of feudalism. The landlord comes to exercise many of the powers of the lord of the land. The possession of land and the lordship over the men on it are combined into that peculiar function of the mediæval prince. It is in this way that he comes to stand between the nominal government and the great body of the subjects. He holds his own people by the personal tie, and he makes use of his land to reward them again as he has taken his own reward. But these two qualities lead to another: the chieftain is forced into the character of a judge. He exercises judicial functions and thus acquires judicial rights.

Then again we have to bring in a class of the people, who at first seem to have no relation to all this landed aristocracy of fighting men,—the servile or half-servile class of artisans and traders. It is not hard to make even the

modern industrially born and bred American pupil understand that in a society like this the idea of trade and manufacture had a something degrading about it, and that the fighting classes had a certain right to the product of the labor they despised. If he finds this hard to understand remind him that it is only a generation ago that we in this country were taking possession not only of the labor, but of the persons of human beings, and perhaps he will see it more clearly. If then he grasps this idea it will surely interest him to learn how these same manufacturing and trading classes gradually come to have notions of their own about their personal rights; how they gather more and more in cities where the pressure of feudal ideas was less hard; how they organize themselves into great trades unions and so come to a higher sense of their importance in the social scale, and then, finally, how in many places they are strong enough to throw off the yoke of their feudal masters, to ally themselves with the kings and thus to build up the splendid cities of France and Italy, in which the finest developments of the middle period are to be found. It will be easy then to show that cities in Italy become the actual centers of political states and so to connect them with the larger movement of European politics.

Then we must not forget the most peculiar of all mediæval institutions, the monastic system. Here is a form of human life so strange its very strangeness makes it attractive and impressive. The picture of the mediæval monastery with its singular charm for the men and women of the time, with its curious combination of religious with social and economic motive is one readily made intelligible to the pupil. Just as he learns to understand the bond of the fighting man to his lord as the dominant motive of his life, so he can be made to understand the bond of the monk to his abbot, to his House, and to his order. In these days we are coming to learn more clearly than used to be the case how very human these cloistered pioneers of industry and of learning were. We are learning to set them in their right place in the midst of the half savage society that was waiting to be civilized. We are now able to see that the gradual betterment of social conditions which we can observe from the tenth century on was largely owing to the combined effort of the monastic clergy under the impulse of the Clugny reforms, these then reacting on the secular clergy and these again influencing the ruling powers of Europe. The Peace of the Land, enforced by law and military strength, follows upon "The Peace of God," enforced by a sense of responsibility to the Church as the agent of the divine will.

After all these specifically mediæval elements have been put before the pupil and properly illustrated, there remains a factor much more easily dealt with: the territorial development of the European states. If this is approached from the wrong end, that is, from the modern map, we are sure to run into many confusions. The truer method is to begin with the struggle of feudal groups not as yet determined by the lines of nationality. If, for example, we follow the wrestling of the grandsons of Charlemagne, we see them at first following the mere instinct of possession, with only the faintest outline of a race feeling dividing them roughly into East and West. If we take up the conflicts between what we call England and France during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, we find ourselves dealing with the friction of lesser feudal units rather than with the national entities themselves. The same is true of the desperate efforts of German kings to overcome the resistance of their dependencies and if we enter into that doubtful region between what comes to be German and what comes to be French, the fact is still more impressive that the key to it all is in the sense of feudal right, quite independently of the largeness or smallness of the feudal unit.

These points of view carry us on well through the twelfth century; but then our perspective begins to change. From the time of Philip Augustus and the later Hohenstaufens it is most instructive to place the idea of nationality more toward the front of our picture. National monarchies, national languages, national armies are beginning to take form as the tangible rallying-points for the larger movement of humanity. And with these the map of Europe is becoming clearer. The smaller territorial units are slowly giving way to the larger, and this group of larger territorial units are taking the place also of the vast universal mediæval ideals of the Empire and the Papacy.

In a word we are approaching the forms of the modern Europe, and as we do so the language of our science becomes simpler and more intelligible to the pupil. Feudal arrangements, which until now have had the right of way and have only with difficulty accepted the intrusion of national ideas, are now being thrust aside and put on the defensive. They are very tenacious of life. The affection of the people gathers about them even when they are acting to their hurt, and the king's right has often to be harshly enforced long after it has become formally accepted. The idea of loyalty to the nation and to the king as the representative of the nation is a thing of slow growth, requiring to be bought by every kind of privilege and only gradually replacing the old loyalty to the nearest strong person who could make it worth while.

I have thus tried to bring before you what seem to me the most important considerations for the teacher who is called upon to teach Mediæval History in a secondary school. It has not been my purpose to suggest any specific tricks of the trade by which these points of view are to be enforced. Those every teacher must discover for himself in order to make them of much value to him. Let me say only that to make these points of view useful to the pupil they must be illustrated constantly by concrete cases. Youth loves the concrete, and remembers it; but to give meaning to the concrete it must be shown in its place in a larger scheme and in its true relation to other concrete things. More than in other periods of European history it is possible in this to show a unity of public life and thought under the domination of leading ideas and institutions. These must, therefore, be utilized to the fullest extent; but the modern student demands instinctively and rightly that these generalizations shall be shown to be formed from concrete observation and not *a priori* from any airy speculations whatever. I am sure I need not at this late day urge upon you the absolute importance of keeping the essentials of chronology and geography constantly before the pupil's mind. If to this caution I add that none of the devices for making pupils acquainted at first hand with some of the materials of their study should be neglected, I shall have gone as far along this line of specific suggestion as time will allow.

American Historical Association

The twenty-eighth annual meeting of the American Historical Association will be held in Boston and Cambridge, December 27th to 31, 1912. The headquarters of the association will be the Copley Plaza, Copley Square, Boston. In connection with the association, the following associations will hold their meetings at the same time and place: The American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Sociological Society, the American Statistical Association, the American Association for Labor Legislation, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the New England History Teachers' Association. The program for the sessions is as follows:

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 27.

Meeting of the Executive Council of the American Historical Association. 3 P.M.

Address. Albion W. Small, President of the American Sociological Society. 4 P.M.

Address. Walter F. Wilcox, President of the American Statistical Association. 4 P.M.

Address. Theodore Roosevelt, President of the American Historical Association. 8 P.M.

At the conclusion of President Roosevelt's address, there will be an informal gathering of members of all the Associations at the Copley Plaza. 9 P.M.

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 28.

Meetings of Committees (at the call of chairman). 9 A.M.
Conferences. All at 10 A.M.

Archivists—

Chairman, Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania.

Some Fundamental Principles in Relation to Archives.

Waldo G. Leland, Carnegie Institution.

An Archive Manual, its Plan and Scope.

Victor H. Paltsits, Public Archives Commission.

Ancient History—

Chairman, Arthur Fairbanks, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.

Oriental History as a Field of Investigation.

George F. Moore, Harvard University.

Graeco-Roman History as a Field of Investigation.

Henry A. Sill, Cornell University.

Discussion led by James H. Breasted, University of Chicago;

Robert W. Rogers, Drew Theological Seminary; William

Stearns Davis, University of Minnesota.

Historical Bibliography—

Chairman, William A. Dunning, Columbia University.

The Reviewing of Historical Books.

Carl Becker, University of Kansas.

Discussion led by J. Franklin Jameson, American Historical

Review; Davis R. Dewey, American Economic Review;

W. Dawson Johnston, Columbia University; Ernest C. Rich-

ardson, Princeton University; Charles M. Andrews, Yale

University; Walter Lichtenstein, Northwestern University.

Luncheon, tendered to members of the association at the building of the Massachusetts Historical Society. 1 P.M.

Conferences. All at 2.30 P.M.

Teachers of History. (Joint meeting with the New England History Teachers' Association.)

Chairman, William S. Ferguson, President of the New England History Teachers' Association.

Report on Historical Equipment in High Schools and Colleges

by the Committee of the New England History Teachers' Association; John O. Sumner, chairman Massachusetts In-

stitute of Technology; Philip P. Chase, Milton Academy;

Miss Lotta A. Clark, Charlestown High School; Miss Mabel

Hill, Lowell Normal School; William MacDondald, Brown

University; Francis A. Smith, Girls' High School, Boston;

Harry M. Varrell, Simmons College.

Discussion led by Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia

University; Addison L. Fulwider, High School, Freeport, Ill.

In connection with this report an exhibit of rooms furnished

with typical equipments has been arranged in the buildings

of Simmons College.

Ninth Annual Conference of Historical Societies—

Chairman, Waldo Lincoln, President of the American Antiquarian Society.

Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Secretary of the American Historical Association.

Opening remarks by the Chairman and Report of the Secretary.

Report of Committee of Seven on Co-operation between His-

torical Societies, by the Chairman, Dunbar Rowland, Depart-

ment of Archives and History, Jackson, Miss.

Genealogy and History. Charles K. Bolton, Librarian of the

Boston Athenæum.

The Massachusetts Historical Society. Worthington C. Ford,

Editor of Publications, Massachusetts Historical Society.

Discussion.

Mediæval History—

Chairman, George B. Adams, Yale University.

Profitable Fields of Investigation in Mediæval History.

James Westfall Thompson, University of Chicago.

Discussion led by James T. Shotwell, Columbia University; Albert B. White, University of Minnesota; Howard L. Gray, Harvard University; William E. Lunt, Cornell University; Edgar H. McNeal, Ohio State University.

Address. Frank A. Fetter, President of the American Economic Association. 8 P.M.

Address. Albert Bushnell Hart, President of the American Political Science Association. 8 P.M.

Smoker. 10 P.M.

MONDAY, DECEMBER 30.

* The morning and afternoon sessions will be held in Cambridge. Conferences. All at 10 A.M.

American History—

Chairman, Frederick J. Turner, Harvard University.

Profitable Subjects for Investigation in American History, 1815-1860.

William E. Dodd, University of Chicago.

Discussion led by Ulrich B. Phillips, University of Michigan; Theodore C. Smith, Williams College; Allen Johnson, Yale University; Homer C. Hockett, Ohio State University; P. Orman Ray, Pennsylvania State College.

Modern History—

Chairman, Charles Downer Hazen, Smith College.

The History of Modern Commerce as a Field for Investigation. Edwin F. Gay, Harvard University.

Discussion led by Clive Day, Yale University; Alfred L. P. Dennis, University of Wisconsin; William E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania; Abbott P. Usher, Cornell University; Clarence H. Haring, Bryn Mawr College; Stewart L. Mims, Yale University.

Meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. 10 A.M.

President, Reuben Gold Thwaites, State Historical Society of Wisconsin.

General subject: New England and the West.

Side-Lights on the Scioto Company—The Early Movement of New England into the West.

Archer B. Hulbert, Marietta College.

The New England Element in Illinois Politics before 1830.

Solon J. Buck, University of Illinois.

New England and the Western Reserve.

Karl F. Geiser, Oberlin College.

The Mayflower Compact and its Descendants.

Mrs. Lois Kimball Mathews, University of Wisconsin.

Luncheon offered by Harvard University. 12.30 P.M.

Government and American History. (Joint session with the American Political Science Association.) 2 P.M.

Papers by

Harry A. Garfield, Williams College.

Adam Shortt, Civil Service Commission of Canada.

The Enforcement of the Alien and Sedition Laws.

Frank M. Anderson, University of Minnesota.

The Point of View of British Travellers in America, 1810-1860.

Ephraim D. Adams, Stanford University.

Annual Business Meeting. 4 P.M.

Reception by President and Mrs. Lowell. 5 P.M.

European History. 8.15 P.M.

Anent the Middle Ages.

George L. Burr, Cornell University.

Antecedents of the Quattrocento.

Henry Osborn Taylor, New York City.

The Star Chamber.

Edward P. Cheyney, University of Pennsylvania.

Crispi: A Legend in the Making.

William R. Thayer, Cambridge.

TUESDAY, DECEMBER 31.

American History. 10 A.M.

The New Columbus.

Henry P. Biggar, London, England.

Religious Forces in the American Revolution.

Claude H. Van Tyne, University of Michigan.

The Tragedy of December, 1812.

Charles Francis Adams, President of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

The True President Johnson.

James Schouler, Boston.

Subscription luncheon, with brief addresses, at the Copley Plaza. 1 P.M.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

—An interesting comparison of Bismark and Gladstone, by James Lane Block, of Chicago, is to be found in "The Sewanee Review" for October.

—"The Voltaire of Portugal," by Mary H. Allies ("The Catholic World," October), is of interest in view of the governmental policy of the Portuguese Republic. The title has reference to Sebastian Joseph De Carvalho, Marquis of Pomba (1699-1782).

—"Le Revue" for October contains nine pieces of heretofore unpublished testimony upon Napoleon's campaign of 1812, contributed by Arthur Chuquet, author of "Guerre de Russie." The contributions vary much in importance, but all are of interest.

—The picturesque life of early California days is well reflected in "A Mission Town in the Sixties," by Georgiana Parks Ballard ("Overland Monthly," October).

—The "Atlantic Monthly" announces for 1913 a group of Confederate portraits by Gamabiel Bradford, Jr., similar to the studies of Robert E. Lee, which appeared a year ago. These studies were announced for 1912, but the large amount of work involved in their preparation made postponement of their publication necessary. Portraits of the following are now ready to appear: Joseph E. Johnston, J. E. B. Stuart, James Longstreet, Judah P. Benjamin.

—J. B. Williams in "Fresh Light on Cromwell at Drogheda" ("The Nineteenth Century and After," September) places the conduct of Cromwell in a much less favorable light than that in which he has been placed by Gardiner, the historian.

—In "A Search for the Last Inca Capital" ("Harper's Magazine," October), Hiram Bingham, Director of the Yale Peruvian Expedition, presents his evidence for the opinion that the last Inca capital was at Rasaspata. Interesting illustrations accompany the article.

—"Scribner's Magazine" for October contains an unusually interesting article entitled, "The River Colbert." It is the second of a series by John Finley, under the general title, "The French in the Heart of America." "Colbert" is the name given by Joliet on one of his maps to the Mississippi River. The article is illustrated by numerous pictures and a copy of Joliet's map.

—"The Panama Canal Tolls: A British View" appears in "The North American Review" for October. The author, Archibald R. Colquhoun, expresses the belief that in the use of the canal coast-wise vessels cannot in equity be placed on a differential basis, but he believes "that public opinion in Great Britain is not greatly exercised on the subject."

—"The Annexation of Korea. An Essay in 'Benevolent Assimilation,'" by George Trumbull Ladd, appears in the "Yale Review" for July. Professor Ladd considers the conditions favorable and unfavorable to the end which Japan has in view, shows what has already been accomplished, and says in conclusion that there is "a fair prospect that the world will witness in the case of Japan and Korea an instance of benevolent assimilation in the moral and spiritual as well as the political meaning of the term."

—"A treeless world might not be uninhabitable, but it is an historical fact that migration, racial progress, and growth of population have been guided by the forest distribution of the world, modified, of course, by other conditions, but having that as one of the chief influences." This quotation from Defebaugh, "History of the Lumber Industry in America," serves as the text of a lecture on "Forests and American History," delivered by Hugo Winckler at the University of California, November 15, 1911. ("The University of California Chronicle," April, 1912.)

—"A Rapid Journey Through the Masai Steppes," an article by Dr. von Schrenck ("Illustrirte Zeitung," September 26th), is accompanied by illustrations of especial interest from an anthropological view-point.

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Professor Emerton's paper upon "The Teaching of Mediæval History in Schools," printed in this number, was originally read before the New England History Teachers' Association, at its meeting of October 22, 1904. A number of requests for its republication have reached us. With the permission of Professor Emerton and of the Council of the New England History Teachers' Association, it is here reproduced.

Acknowledgement is due to Dr. Ernest F. Henderson, and to his publishers, Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, for permission to reproduce the illustrations on the front cover and in the body of Dr. Henderson's article. They are taken from a list of 171 pictures used in Dr. Henderson's work, "Symbol and Satire in the French Revolution," published in November, by Putnam's. The work is not merely a collection of pictures illustrating the events from 1789 to 1795, but it gives a succinct history of the Revolution.

The American Historical Review for October, 1912, is a notable number. The contributed articles are well distributed over the field of history: Professor W. S. Ferguson makes some original interpretations of ancient deifications of rulers in a paper entitled "Legalized Absolutism en Route from Greece to Rome;" Dr. W. E. Lunt studies from hitherto unused materials the first levy of papal annates in the British Isles; Mr. A. C. Dudley corrects the usual generalizations about the persecutions of Dissenters under the Clarendon Code in the reign of Charles II; and Mr. J. G. Randall analyzes incisively the confiscation acts of Congress, passed during the Civil War.

The documents printed in this number of the "Review" are unusually interesting. They consist of the diary of Thomas Ewing, secretary of the treasury under Harrison and Tyler, for the months of August and September, 1841; and they throw much light upon the relations of Tyler to the cabinet members whom he had retained from Harrison's cabinet. Tyler's attitude toward the bank bills and the other Whig measures is well shown; as well as Clay's determination to force an issue with the President.

The leading article, however, is "The National Archives: A Programme," contributed by Dr. Waldo G. Leland, secretary of the American Historical Association. Dr. Leland is well fitted for his task of outlining a national archive policy, not only by virtue of his intimate knowledge of the character, location, and physical condition of the archives in Washington, but also on account of his extended study of archive methods and archive materials in European depositories. In this article Dr. Leland briefly describes the character and extent of the archives in the governmental departments in Washington, and refers to the legal provisions for their care and accessibility by investigators and departmental clerks. He shows vividly the existing carelessness in the storing of archives, and the dangers to which they are subject from fire, dampness and vandalism; and points out the present difficulties encountered in the consulting of archives not only by investigators, but by departmental officials as well. A situation exists which is intolerable whether viewed from the standpoint of the administrative official or of the student.

Adopting the hypothesis that it is as much the function of government to preserve and utilize its archives as it is to levy taxes and make loans, Dr. Leland urges the adoption of two essentials in a national archive policy; the erection of a suitable archive depot, and the organization of an archive administration. The suitable size, construction, exterior appearance, and interior arrangements of a national archive building are taken up in turn by the writer and a scheme presented based upon the best European and American experience. Under the heading of the administration of the archives, Dr. Leland points out the classes of material which should be transferred from departmental offices to the central depot; the use to be made of the central depot by departmental officials; the problems of the care of archives; the question of the destruction of useless papers; the means to be taken to render the archives accessible by general guides, inventories, calendars, and collections of texts; and provisions or restrictions for the use of the archives by investigators. He concludes: "It has been shown that the present conditions have become intolerable, and that the remedial measures thus far tried, are but makeshifts, aggravating the many evils rather than affording relief. To continue as at present is to perpetuate inefficiency and extravagance and to incur risks for which no government should wish to be responsible to the nation. It is the plain duty of Congress to provide a better method, a system adequate to the administrative needs of a great government, a building worthy of a great nation, in which both the requirements of public business and those of historical scholarship shall be completely satisfied. The very absence of a system and of a building, leaves us *carte blanche* for arrangements marked by ideal excellence. Why should the nation not have the best of all national archive buildings? Is it not incumbent upon all who cherish our history, and who desire that the rightful heritage of future generations shall pass to them unimpaired, to urge vigorously upon Congress the performance of this long-neglected duty, the meeting of this pressing problem by an ideal solution?"

History in the Secondary School

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, EDITOR.

Outline of Modern European History, Based Upon the Recommendations of the Committee of Five

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., AND ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

II. Industrial and Commercial Conditions in Europe in the Eighteenth Century

Scarcely one of the numerous histories of Europe in the eighteenth century devotes more than a few pages to an analysis of the economic conditions which are the key to most of the political changes which took place in countries like England, France, Holland and Spain. Yet we now recognize that many of the economic impulses which have created modern conditions were actuating the merchants and the traders, even the kings and princes of those times. It is our purpose, therefore, in this month's outline to present an analysis of these economic impulses.

Methods of Manufacture.

To understand the economic conditions of the eighteenth century, one must study first the processes of manufacture which existed generally throughout Europe. In producing for the home market, in the production of goods for local consumption—and this, after all, still made up the bulk of the trade of each country—the guild system which had had its origin in the Middle Ages still existed almost entirely unchanged. In the large manufactures, especially in England, where goods were produced for the foreign market, the guild system was superseded by the system of domestic manufacture into which a capitalistic element has entered. The weaver of cloth, for instance, no longer furnished his own yarn, nor did he attempt to market his finished product. He received his raw material from a factor and returned his finished product to a middle man, who paid him for his work and disposed of the cloth in the open market.

International Trade.

International trade, too, was largely transformed. New trade routes and new transportation facilities had been put at the disposal of merchants; the old mediæval markets and fairs had sunk into relative unimportance, the Hansa towns in the north and the Italian cities of the south had lost their ascendancy and a distinctly modern system of banking and exchange had taken the place of the comparatively cumbersome methods of an earlier age.

Even the articles of trade were no longer the same as in previous centuries. Spices, drugs, perfumes and precious stones were still imported from the east; but tea, coffee and sugar had been added to the cargoes. Colonial wares, tobacco, rice, fish, furs and naval stores, were seen on all the wharves of Europe. Trade in wool, cotton and silk had grown enormously.

Trading Companies and Colonial Enterprises.

Methods of trade, also, were revolutionized. Trading companies whose origin we can trace back into the seventeenth century had almost altogether taken the place of the individual merchant who used to travel from country to country disposing of his wares. Independent trading still persisted, but both the government and the privileged companies did their best to suppress it.

Of the colonial enterprises of the individual countries, we shall attempt to make no analysis here, we leave that to the sections devoted to the subject in the outline; but we feel that the Mercantile System which dominated the trade policy of every country in Europe in the eighteenth century should be called to the teacher's especial attention. For a clear comprehension of the motives back of the system, the teacher can do no better than to read the short essay of Schmoller referred to in the bibliography. For a more extended exposition he will do well to go to Cunningham's *Growth of English Industry and Commerce*.

In order to see the result of this system upon the policies of the various European nations we must study the wars of the eighteenth century. We have made no attempt to analyze these wars in this outline. We reserve that task for a later number, but we do wish to insist that the teacher should close his study of this period by an examination of the three topics mentioned under the last heading in the outline. A comprehension of the reasons for the failure of the French colonial enterprises in North America and India, of the causes of the American Revolution, and

of the economic theories of Adam Smith, will do more than any thing else to help one understand the economic history of the eighteenth century.

I. Methods of Manufacture in Eighteenth Century.

1. The Guild System.
 - a. Its origin and development.
 - b. Typical guilds—smiths, masons, weavers, dyers, furriers.
 - c. Purposes of the guilds:
 1. Protection of trade.
 2. Standardizing production.
 3. Prevention of fraud.
 4. Monopoly of trade.
 - d. Advantages and disadvantages of the system.
 - e. Organization of guilds—masters, journeymen, apprentices.
2. The persistence of the guild system throughout the eighteenth century, especially in manufacture for home consumption.
3. The domestic system of manufacture.
 - a. Process of manufacture contrasted with guild system.
 - b. The use of middlemen, factors, and wholesalers.
 - c. The rise of a capitalistic class.

II. Internal Trade.

1. Agriculture still the chief industry in every country.
 - a. Gradual improvement in tillage.
2. Manufacture for home consumption outweighs production for foreign markets.
3. Local regulations.
 - a. Town supervision of industry.
 - b. Taxes on imported articles, "Octrois."
 - c. Prohibition of exports.
 - d. The market and its regulation.
4. Fairs, their purpose and their accomplishments.

III. International Trade and European Banking.

1. Trade routes and transportation facilities.
2. International markets and trading accommodations in Amsterdam, London, Hamburg and Frankfurt.
3. Credit and Banking.
 - a. Goldsmiths as depositories, and discount and collection agents.
 - b. Development of regular banks in England and on the continent—the Bank of England.
 - c. The stock exchange and the money market.
 - d. Speculation and crises.
 - e. South Sea Bubble and John Law's Mississippi Bubble.

IV. Articles of Trade and Typical Markets.

1. Levantine goods.
 - a. Spices, drugs, perfumes, precious stones, dye-stuffs, fancy silk and cotton fabrics.
 - b. Tea, coffee and sugar.
2. Colonial wares.
 - a. Sugar, coffee, tobacco, fish, furs, naval stores and raw materials in general.
3. Precious metals.
4. Wool, cotton and silk.
5. Slaves.

V. Trading Companies and Colonial Enterprises.

1. Their establishment and development in the seventeenth century.
 - a. Regulated companies, open associations bound by common rules.
 - b. Joint stock companies—the modern corporation.
 - c. Interlopers, independent merchants who attempt to break into restricted markets.

2. Typical examples.
 - a. East India Companies in England, Holland and France.
 - b. English Muscovy Company.
 - c. Dutch West India Company.
 3. Portuguese and Spanish methods of trade.
 - a. Individual enterprises under strict government regulation.
- VI. Colonial Enterprises of Principal European Nations Analyzed.
1. Portugal.
 - a. Early explorations—masters of East India market.
 - b. African and South American colonies.
 - c. Spanish rule in Portugal leads to end of East Indian enterprises—Dutch conquest.
 - d. Weakness at home prevents development of remaining colonial resources.
 2. Spain.
 - a. Spanish home industries of earlier centuries—woolens, silks, leather, soaps and other wares—decline in eighteenth century.
 - b. Colonial enterprises in America; the search for treasure.
 - c. Failure to develop cultivation of raw materials, leads to,
 - d. Decline of colonial empire with exhaustion of supply of precious metals.
 3. The Netherlands—colonies and carrying trade.
 - a. Dutch conquests in the East Indies.
 - b. Settlements in the West Indies.
 - c. Fisheries in the North Sea and the Baltic.
 - d. Spice trade and Levantine wares.
 4. France.
 - a. Natural advantages of France—sea coast, river systems, natural capacity of people.
 - b. Drawbacks—internal disorders, ineffective system of manufacture, remnants of feudal privileges, over-regulation of industry and trade.
 - c. Efforts of the crown to stimulate trade—the action of kings from Francis I. to Louis XIV., Sully, Richelieu and Colbert.
 - d. Rise and Decline of colonies in India and America.
 5. England.
 - a. Imports.
 1. Minor manufactures from continental Europe.
 2. Raw materials—wool from Spain; hemp, flax and tallow from Russia; wood, iron and copper from Scandinavia.
 3. Tea, coffee, cotton, sugar, spices, textiles from Asia.
 4. Plantation products, furs, fish, lumber from America.
 5. Gold, ivory, wax, negro slaves from Africa.
 - b. Exports.
 1. English manufactures—woolens, cottons, iron and steel products, haberdashery and linens.
 2. Colonial products by trans-shipment—the English as the carriers of Europe.
 - c. Colonial enterprises in North America, Africa and Asia.
- VII. The General Trade and Colonial Policy of European Nations. The Mercantile System.
1. A stage in economic progress from mediæval industry which was local to modern industry which aims to possess world markets.

2. A national policy as contrasted with the local policy of earlier times and the international policy of the nineteenth century.
3. General features of the system.
 - a. Restriction on importation of manufactures—an effort to create a favorable "balance of trade."
 - b. Production favored by prohibition of exports of raw material and bounties on exportation of manufactured products.
 - c. Commercial treaties, e.g., Methuen Treaty and Assiento Concession.
 - d. Encouragement of domestic shipping, fisheries, and coasting trade by forbidding foreign competition—Navigation Acts.
 - e. Colonial Trade restricted to mother country—Trade Acts.
 - f. State aid to manufacture, protection of home industries, the system of Colbert in France.
4. The wars of the eighteenth century—to be treated in the next outline.

VIII. The End of the Era.

1. The failure of the French colonial enterprises and the French Revolution.
2. The American Revolution—the failure of the English colonial system in North America.
3. Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*—a literary attack which destroyed men's belief in the Mercantile System.

REFERENCES.

A bibliography for the study of this subject is extremely difficult to compile. The material is so scattered that the teacher will find it difficult to assemble.

Two books should be depended upon primarily: Day, "History of Commerce," Part III. and selected chapters from Part II; Cunningham, "Western Civilization in its Economic Aspects," Book V. These the teacher should follow up with Cheyney, "European Background of American History," Seeley, "Expansion of England," Webster, "General History of Commerce," and Schmoller, "Mercantile System," just eighty pages long, difficult reading, but full of suggestive material for the teacher. For an exhaustive study of the economic history of England, the teacher should use Cunningham, "Growth of English Industry and Commerce," vol. II, and Beer, volumes on English colonial policy. Briefer works are Gibbens, "Industry in England," and Egerton, "Brief History of British Colonial Policy." For conditions in France, the best available books in English are Sargent, "Colbert" and selected chapters from Perkins, "Richelieu and the Growth of the French Power," and his "France under the Regency." For Holland the most detailed information can be obtained from selected chapters of Blok, "History of the People of the Netherlands." A shorter book on the same subject is Rogers, "Story of Holland." Day, "Dutch in Java," is a special study of Holland's trade policy and commercial methods. Books on Spain's commercial policy especially to be recommended are Bourne, "Spain in America" and Roscher, "Spanish Colonial System." For Portugal, H. Morse Stephens, "Portugal" is available.

Experiences in Teaching Current Events

History in the Making—a Practical Suggestion for High School Classes

BY CAROL S. WILLIAMS, HIGH SCHOOL, GLASTONBURY, CONN.

My heart sank as the class in "Mediæval and Modern History" filed laggingly into my class room. By their attitude they expressed only too plainly their respective indifference to, or hatred of, all studies,—and the study of history in particular. They are the five girls in the Senior class who are not preparing for college, and who are therefore doomed to take an additional course in history. As may be imagined, they are not the brightest pupils in the school; yet each is an alert, independent girl, well capable of earning her own livelihood, but of the type that is frankly bored by intellectual work.

They had already taken a semester's work in Mediæval History, and were supposedly to begin with the Renaissance, for another half-years work in Modern History. I began with an attempted rapid review of the period from Charlemagne to the fifteenth century, and at the end of a week was utterly discouraged. Perhaps the previous work had made some impression on their minds but if it had, I failed to discover it. A hasty summary of the period was impossible; they could hardly distinguish Empire and Papacy. I changed my tactics and announced that we would not go on with Modern History until we thoroughly understood Mediæval. This did not tend toward enthusiasm on their part, nor could I awaken even a gleam of interest, in spite of my repeated efforts. The glamor of mediæval knighthood and chivalry, the romance of feudalism, seemed utterly lost on them. Even novels, my last resort, were only partially successful. They "did

not care" for "Ivanhoe" or "The Talisman." By reading bits from one or two of the more modern historical novels, I did succeed in arousing a faint interest in the event itself,—but it was momentary only. After the first month, I was almost in despair of ever making the course of any value to the girls, for apparently it was impossible for them to see any connection between their study and the times in which they were living.

One day in giving out subjects for research papers, I assigned to one girl "Medieval Fairs," and suggested that she compare them with one of our modern State Fairs. This idea really seemed to interest the class, and so, following out the thought, I began to enlarge, even more than I had previously done, on the theme of what I called "profitable comparison." A little later, I happened to see a newspaper item describing the hostility of the German and French even to-day in Alsace-Lorraine; I cut it out, to show to the class,—and that brought a new idea. Why not keep a notebook of clippings, showing the connection between our own times, and past centuries? The class took up the idea with the first show of enthusiasm that I had seen. Here was something practical, within their grasp. I offered a prize to the pupil who should bring in the best material for our scrap-book, and within the week my desk was deluged with newspaper articles of all sizes and descriptions.

Our idea developed, however, as we began to work. The papers were full of the Balkan War, of peace negotiations between Italy and Turkey, of plots and counter-plots among the great powers whose early history we were studying. We would make a Modern History,—a History of to-day. With due formality, the first page of our book was inscribed:

History in the Making.

Compiled by the Class in Mediæval and Modern History
G——— High School, 1912-1913.

Then followed the names of the pupils.

Now the scrap-book is in the process of development, and bids fair to become of imposing size. One day a week is devoted to discussing the material that has been brought in, and culling out the best. We do not confine ourselves to literature; pictures, such as supplied by all the illustrated weeklies, of people and of places, add much to the interest and value of the book. We have even admitted some cartoons, those giving graphically a political situation,—and needless to say, these are the especial pride and delight of the class.

The book itself is a slip-sheet notebook, the only practical kind for such a course. We have already nineteen countries about which we have collected items that may some day be of historical importance. That is our test—whether the facts selected are actually those that might some day be incorporated into a General History. Turkey, Italy, Montenegro, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, Greece, England, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, Portugal, Morocco, China, Japan, Persia, Mexico, Nicaragua,—each country has its own section in the book. Naturally the Balkan States are the most interesting just at this time, and the class is eager to bring in articles and pictures to help out our general knowledge of the situation. I have even persuaded them to read one or two books dealing with Eastern Europe.

We try to discuss in class each article that is brought in, before it is pasted in the book,—and here is the practical value of the plan. There is a newly-awakened interest in the past history of the countries studied. Every two weeks each student prepares a short paper on some recent event, or series of events, in which she is especially interested, perhaps filling out the accounts given in the notebook with more detailed reading. One valuable paper of this sort was on the Ottoman Empire, giving a brief survey of the rise, and then of the gradual decline of the Turks, and an estimate of what the Young Turk Government has done, and has failed to do.

What this plan has done for the general atmosphere of the class, I cannot estimate in words. It is as yet far from an ideal class in history, yet I believe that because of this definite manual work in current events, each pupil is taking up the regular work with more enthusiasm and vigor. They needed some such manual work to make them realize the importance of past events in connection with those of to-day. That this idea in a large class might be difficult to carry out, I fully realize; the small size and informal method of mine has made it easily practical.

A Method of Teaching Current History in the High School

BY MASON M. FISHBACK, UNION HIGH SCHOOL, ORANGE, CALIFORNIA

The teaching of current events in connection with the history work of the high school is now a recognized part of the curriculum. Its value in vitalizing the subject and in promoting clear thinking in social relations can not be overestimated. This is a field that the history teacher should not neglect. There is no better way of bringing history down to the present, of relating it to the life of the student, than that of stimulating in him a desire to keep informed on the important events that are now in the making.

The outside reading of the average high school boy or girl is largely confined to the sporting page and local mention columns of the newspaper, to the short stories of the cheaper magazines, and to the latest fiction of the most popular kind. The opportunity to encourage the reading of more serious articles in our better magazines, and a more discriminating use of the newspapers, should not be ignored by the history department.

The senior year, when American History and Government are taken up, is the opportune time for the study of current history, although some attention can be given it incidentally in the earlier years. The student can then attack this problem with a more mature judgment and with a mind more thoroughly trained along historical lines.

For the past two years the following method has been tried out in our school with what we believe to be good results. It commends itself because it is workable from the standpoint of the student. Shortly after the beginning of the school year the American History class is organized as a magazine staff. A managing editor is elected who (with the advice of the teacher) appoints the editors for the following departments: International Affairs, The Nation, California, Science and Invention, Literature, Sports. An effort is made to select those who are best fitted for the various departments, as for instance, a student who has had the course in Mediæval and Modern History is given charge of International affairs. The other members of the class are assigned as reporters under these editors. This arrangement holds good for the first quarter of the school year, at the end of which time a new election is held and the honors are passed around.

The school board subscribes for a number of the best weekly and monthly magazines. These, together with those in the city library, are examined by the board of editors and those articles that appear most worth while are given out to the reporters of the different departments. In making their reports the students are permitted to use notes but no article is to be read to the class, as we have found that this tends to kill the interest.

The club meets on alternate Fridays at the time of the regular recitation period. An effort is made to make the work very informal, and to that end we assemble in the teachers' reception room where there are a number of easy chairs. The managing editor takes charge and the teacher stays in the background as much as possible. The class printer hands out a table-of-contents or program which he has mimeographed for the occasion. The affair is dignified somewhat by adopting for each number the name of one of the better magazines, the nature and value of which are explained by the teacher or by one of the older students. Here is a typical number:

THE WORLD'S WORK

Vol. 1. No. 2.

October 6, 1910.

Table of Contents.

INTERNATIONAL:

Spain and the Vatican Miss Flippen
Russia's Policy Concerning Finland Miss Wilson

THE NATION:

Revised Republican Politics Miss Flippen

CALIFORNIA:

The State Campaign Mr. Woods
The Los Angeles Aqueduct Miss Willits

SCIENCE:

Passing of the Man with the Hoe Mr. Humphrey
Commercial-Value of the Aeroplane Mr. Watson

LITERATURE:

The Oberammergau Passion Play Miss Spotts

After each report is given there is an opportunity for discussion and those who are not on the program are expected to take part in this way.

The students look forward with great pleasure to the meeting of the club. Many of those who at first were indifferent became interested. The plan tends to develop thoughtful reading outside of school hours and raises the standard of the material read. It not only introduces an element of novelty into the history work but helps to vitalize the subject by closely relating it to the present. Its chief merit is that it can be carried out by the students themselves, and so far they have done this with enthusiasm.

Current Events in Secondary Schools

By HENRY R. TUCKER, WILLIAM MCKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL,
ST. LOUIS, MO.

One of the ways to increase the right of history to exist in the curriculum is to make it more human, to socialize it, that is, to teach it more from its social and industrial content. This necessitates leaving out much of the material that is still presented in courses and still necessitated by college entrance requirements. The content of the courses must be directly or indirectly (though not too remotely) connected to the present. The child lives in the contributions of the past, the deeds of the present, the hopes and problems of the future. It is not the purpose of this paper to specify just what should be the content of the history courses, other than to state the general principle that only those phases of historical development should constitute the content of the social science courses in the high school (the college problem is a different one) which have contributed to the warp and woof of the present civilization. For the student to be called upon to learn institutional development that has not contributed to this civilization—because of traditional methods and college requirements—is a waste of time and energy. I firmly believe that the colleges will gladly co-operate with the high schools in a change of required courses and content of subject matter along these lines.

There is one way, especially, in which the pupil can be shown the direct connection of the social sciences to present day problems, and thus show to pupil and parent the right of these subjects to be taught as necessary subjects. It is the use of current magazines and newspapers in the instruction of history (particularly, the modern period), civics, and economics. The connection to the present—that ever recurring demand of pupil and patron—will then be made clear. At least some study of current events should be made systematically in all periods of history; though the connection is more direct in the modern period. A systematic use of the voluminous material on current events adds "zest" to the subject; it enlivens the recitation. Such a study makes the subject "practical,"—a much misused word, but it represents a condition, not a theory which the teacher faces. I disclaim any originality in the advocacy of the use of current events in class room work; I only relate the result of some experience on my part, hoping to be able to draw out from others their experience so as to improve on my use of them. Much that is written below will be suggestive to the new teacher only; the trained and experienced history teacher has already discovered the merit and the devices in the use of current magazines and newspapers.

There is much material, both popular and technical, for the teacher's use. Both the history teacher and the pupil should have access to a reliable monthly, such as the "Review of Reviews" or the "World's Work"; and to a weekly magazine, such as the "Outlook," the "Independent," or the "Literary Digest." Some of these should be a part of the library equipment. The teacher of the social sciences will find the following almost indispensable: the "American Historical Review" (free to members of the American Historical Association), for its authentic accounts, often of current events, such as parliamentary development of 1910-1912, and for its unprejudiced, discriminating book reviews; the "American Political Science Review" (free to members of the American Political Science Association) or the "Political Science Quarterly" (Columbia University, New York), for discussions of governmental development, recent legislation, and valuable book reviews; the "Quarterly Journal of Economics," for economics; the "History Teacher's Magazine," for its historical and educational aids available nowhere else. The teacher would profit by keeping in touch also, with the following magazines, generally in

the city library: "Forum," "Arena," "North American Review," "Atlantic Monthly," "Scribner's," and "Harpers." Even though this list is not at all exhaustive, it is no doubt more than what the busy high school teacher can find time to read, especially if he has to teach some subject outside of his specialty. In that case, he will find it profitable to record the author and character of the article or item for future use. Some of these magazines are indispensable to the teacher of history, civics, and economics; this is especially true so far as current events in modern European and Oriental history, American history, civics, and economics are concerned. It is also often true as to earlier periods of history, as in the results of Egyptian or Roman excavations, etc. Some of these magazines should be a part of the library equipment of every small or large high school, just as essential as the laboratory is to the physical or chemical sciences, and the bench and tools are to the manual training department. The magazines should be bound and kept for future use or "clipped" by the teacher as will be described below.

It would be better to cut out too many articles rather than too few, for the teacher will be surprised how useful these things prove later. This is especially true of current events, inasmuch as the more formal accounts can hardly be expected to be a record up to the last day. So far as listing articles for future use, it would seem that the various reader's guides would serve the purpose; but they must always of necessity be several weeks behind. When the recent reform legislation took place in England, the teacher had to get his information from newspapers or periodicals. Any instruction in the nature of the working of the English government without a consideration of the recent development would be like the play "Hamlet" with Hamlet left out. The account of the recent Chinese Revolution was available at the time only through current magazines and newspapers. Developments in presidential primaries, tariff legislation, direct legislation states, etc., are obtainable only in magazines, newspapers and pamphlets of to-day; they could not be in the average civics or economics text. Any instruction in these subjects which leaves out the developments to "yesterday" is defective: first, it does not present the truth; second, it misses the use of the greatest lever for arousing and maintaining the interest of the pupil, viz., the "news of the day." The use of the current material connects what seems to the child (and his view point must be considered) a dead past to the living present.

The teacher of social sciences should from the very beginning of his training or teaching experience formulate some systematic scheme of cutting out and filing articles and clippings on subjects in his line. A standard system of classification is the Dewey decimal system of cataloging books, endorsed by the American Library Association and used in most of the libraries throughout the country. I have found this book a very effective guide,—"Clippings—the System and Index," by Chas. E. Ebersol, Newspaper Clipping Co., Ottawa, Ill. (\$1.00). I should be glad to know of other books along this line. This one explains the use of a modified scheme of the Dewey decimal system. I have changed the Ebersol "system" somewhat to suit my particular purposes, especially as to what seemed to me to be wrong classifications; though I have used it in the main as a guide for filing clippings and book notices. Unless one follows some standard in the classification of material, as in Ebersol's "Outline of Subjects expanded" and "Topical Index" lists in his "Clippings," he will find his material of very little use. Book notices, book reviews, and short items can be pasted on ordinary size library filing cards, and these arranged according to the Dewey decimal classification or the modified list of Ebersol. Articles and clippings can be put in strong manilla envelopes, according to the subject number. If one does not care to go to the expense of purchasing these envelopes, he can easily make use of the many envelopes in which advertising matter and circulars come to him. I mark each clipping with the classification decimal number (in case I should later care to arrange by numbers); but, now, instead of arranging the numbered envelopes consecutively—as Ebersol does—I put the clippings within each ten numbers in a letter-file box, arranging them, there, alphabetically. If the boxes become full, I take a few numbers, such as political science (32), constitutional law (34), etc., out of the "30-39" box; and modern Asia (95) and American history (97) out of the "90-99" box; and arrange them in another box alphabetically. I find it very helpful to make a record on filing cards of articles on my subjects, either from clippings or magazines that I keep "unclipped," filing such record along with

book notices, reviews, etc. Aside from their use in regular class work, they are very often referred to, when members of literary and debating societies want material. I "clip" all pictures, maps, etc. of current importance and interest: Yuan Shi Kai, map of English-Russian sphere of influence in Persia, landlordism in London, the old and the new conditions in Ireland, German parcels post in New York City, Panama canal pictures, etc. These are for use in the opaque projector, to be considered at another time. Every picture, clipping, and article should have on it the name of the newspaper or magazine from which it is taken, and the date. These items often determine the real value of the clipping or article. If any of them deal with material of the text-book, it is sometimes convenient, temporarily, to place it between the leaves of the book at the place of that material, having previously torn the leaves out of the binding. It can be replaced by new data as it is found, the former material being returned to its proper envelope. Such articles as these could be used in this way: initiative and referendum states, proposed home-rule (St. Louis) legislation, diagrams to illustrate gerrymandering, Portsmouth treaty, educational reforms in China, new parcel post rates, Panama Canal and change in trade routes, changes in powers of Speaker of House of Representatives, the Balkan crisis, Turkey-Italian War, Payne-Aldrich tariff, etc. So far, the discussion has been concerned with the gathering of material by the teacher, the building up of a "morgue," as the newspaper men call it. Much of it must be retained for his private use. That which he cares to let pupils use can be kept in large manilla envelopes at school, marked, "history," "civics," "economics." It might be possible to direct the pupils to keep a few clippings on a small scale, based upon the scheme above. At any rate, the pupils should be directed to the magazines in school and public library, and to newspapers as occasion arises, rather than as a regular assignment. Different pupils might be appointed to keep "posted" on a certain magazine or paper from month to month.

It has been my experience that very few high school students know how to read magazine articles and newspaper items with discriminating judgment, and therefore know little how to report on them. In the first place, it is not advocated that the pupil regularly read all the "literature" mentioned above; he has not the time for it. The teacher can glance over or read them, and then select the articles or announce the topic on which the pupil is to read. These are to be assigned as class or individual reports. The teacher should indicate beforehand about what is to be determined in the reading of the article or clipping. Suppose the chief current event is the Revolution in China, in connection with the so-called Awakening of China. Unless the sub-topics—such as: Taiping rebellion, China before its awakening, educational reforms, social reforms, financial reforms, political reforms, revolution of 1911-1912, etc., are "set" by the teacher, the pupils will report much material that is irrelevant, and leave out much that has bearing on the main topic. This is especially true of newspaper accounts, which, by their very nature, are "scrappy." The teacher would do well to give the "background" or the historical basis of the current topic in order that the daily newspaper or magazine item have its true relation to the past. For instance, in assigned class or individual reports on the Italo-Turkish war, it would be well for the teacher to preface the assignment with a short discussion of previous colonial history of Italy, unless that particular topic has been studied by the class. If the current topic is the outcome of the November election, there should be a discussion of the method of election of President, or assignment to that subject in the text-book, even if taken out of order in the course. If the topic is based upon a series of newspaper items, a summary of the essential points should be made from time to time, for newspaper accounts proverbially lack unity. Inasmuch as it is very seldom that the current event takes place when the topic occurs—for current events of historical importance have a most inconvenient way of happening, when least expected—these directions would seem to be necessary for effective class and individual reports. I would even go further, so that the latter kind of report is sure to include the essentials. Before the report is given to the class, the pupil should show an outline or brief of it to the teacher, so that non-essentials are left out and essentials suggested. The pupils need to be given some hints as to what is desired; then instructed to cut out the items—if from newspaper—and preserve them. Most of our information on the government of Saint Louis has been obtained through newspaper clippings obtained by teacher and pupils, as there is no recent account of it, in book form.

LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES, FROM SEPTEMBER 28 TO OCTOBER 26, 1912.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

- Adams, Silas. The history of the town of Bowdoinham [Ma.] 1762-1912. Fairfield, Me., Fairfield Pub. 295 pp. \$2.00.
 Addison, Albert C. The story of the Puritan fathers. Boston: L. C. Page. 243 pp. \$2.50 net.
 Aldeman, Alva B. Students' history of the United States. Marion, Ia.: Educator Pub. 439 pp. \$1.50.
 Altscheler, Jos. A. The Texan Star. [Story of Texan war of Independence.] New York: Appleton. 372 pp. \$1.50.
 Alvord, Clarence W., and Bidgood, Lee. The first explorations of the Trans-Alleghany region by Virginians, 1650-1674. Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co. 275 pp. (8 pp. bibl.) \$4.00.
 Andrews, Charles M. The Colonial Period. New York: Holt. 256 pp. 50 c. net.
 Arnold, Anna E. Civics and citizenship, a text-book for . . . Kansas. Cottonwood Falls, Kan.: The author. 297 pp. 40c.
 Bates, Lindon W., Jr. The path of the Conquistadores. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 307 pp. \$3.50 net.
 Bernheim, Isaac W. History of the settlement of Jews in . . . the lower Ohio valley. Louisville, Ky.: Bernheim Dist. Co. 78 pp. \$1.00.
 Burk, William H. Historical and Topographical guide to Valley Forge. 3rd rev. ed. Philadelphia: Winston. 166 pp. 25c.
 Burnham, Smith. A short history of Pennsylvania. New York: Hinds, Noble and Eldredge. 197 pp. 65c.
 Butcher, Bernard L., ed. Genealogical and personal history of the Upper Monongahela Valley. In 3 vols. New York: Lewis Pub. \$19.00.
 Coman, Katharine. Economic beginnings of the far West. In 2 vols. New York: Macmillan. 418, 450 pp. (48 pp. bibl.) \$4.00 net.
 Dewey, Davis R. Financial History of the U. S., 4th edition. New York: Longmans. 544 pp. \$2.00.
 Hulst, Cornelia S. Indian Sketches: Père Marquette and the last of the Pottawatomie chiefs. New York: Longmans. 113 pp. 60c.
 Jenkins, Stephen. The story of the Bronx, 1639-1912. New York: Putnam. 451 pp. \$3.50 net.
 Paris, Comte de. The battle of Gettysburg. New rev. ed. Philadelphia: Winston. 315 pp. \$1.50.
 Richards, Caroline C. Village life in America, 1852-1872. New York: Holt. 207 pp. \$1.30 net.
 Towne, Laura M. Letters and diary of L. M. Towne written from the Sea Islands of South Carolina, 1862-1864. Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press. 323 pp. \$1.25 net.
 Twitchell, Ralph E. Leading facts in New Mexico history. In 2 vols. Vol. 2. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. \$12.00.
 Wayland, James W. A history of Rockingham Co., Va. Dayton, Va.: Ruesbush-Elkins Co. 450 pp. \$2.50.
 Whitcombe, Caroline E. History of the Second Massachusetts Battery, 1861-1865. Concord, N. H.: Rumford Press. 111 pp. \$1.25.
 Wilson, James H. Under the old flag: [Recollections of the War for the Union, the Spanish War, the Boxer Rebellion.] In 2 vols. New York: Appleton. 576, 582 pp. \$6.00 net.
 Wingerter, C. A., ed. History of Wheeling and vicinity. In 2 vols. Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co. \$20.00.
 Young, Charles E. Dangers of the trail in 1865. Geneva, New York: The author. 148 pp. \$1.00 net.

Ancient History.

- Banks, Edgar J. Biamya; or the lost city of Adab. New York: Putnam. 455 pp. \$5.00 net.
 Newberry, Percy E., and Garstang, J. A short history of ancient Egypt. New York: Dutton. 112 pp. \$1.25 net.
 Stephenson, Andrew. A history of Roman law. Boston: Little, Brown. 513 pp. \$3.00 net.

English History.

- Anglo Saxon Chronicle, The. ed. by J. A. Giles. New York: Macmillan. 211 pp. \$1.00 net.
 Fortescue, John W. A history of the British army. Vol. 7. New York: Macmillan. 661 pp. \$6.50 net.
 Green, Alice S. The old Irish world. New York: Macmillan. 197 pp. \$1.60 net.
 Haverfield, Francis J. The Romanization of Roman Britain, 2nd. enl. ed. New York: Oxford Univ. 70 pp. \$1.15 net.
 Innes, Arthur D. England's industrial development. New York: Macmillan. 374 pp. \$1.60 net.
 Stuart-Linton, Charles E. T. The problem of empire governance. New York: Longmans. 240 pp. \$1.25 net.
 Tawney, R. H. The agrarian problem in the 16th century. New York: Longmans. 414 pp. \$3.00 net.

(Continued on page 236.)

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR

NOTES.

Professor L. F. Jackson, of Washington State College, is spending the year at Cambridge.

Miss M. E. Way, teacher of history in Lafayette, Colorado, has accepted a similar position in Ft. Collins, Colorado.

Professor W. C. Abbott, of Yale University, is giving a course on English history at Harvard during the first half year.

Mr. Stuart L. Mims has been appointed assistant professor of history at Yale.

Professor William B. Munro, of Harvard University, will be absent on leave during the second half year.

Professor Bushee, of Colorado College, has been appointed professor of economics in the University of Colorado.

The third volume of Professor Edward Channing's History of the United States, covering the period 1761-1789 has just been published.

Miss Mabel Hill, of the State Normal School, of Lowell, Mass., has accepted the position of Dean of the Mitchell Military Boys' School, at Bellerica, Mass.

Mr. Alfred F. Pollard, of the British Museum, gives next spring at Cornell University a course of lectures on the Place of Parliamentary Institutions in the Development of Civilization.

Professor C. H. Haskins, of Harvard University, will attend the Third International Congress of Historical Studies at London in April, 1913, speaking on Mediæval History.

Professor Willard, head of the department of history in the University of Colorado, is traveling in Europe. During his absence Professor Carl Eckhard will be acting head of the department.

The next meeting of the newly organized Northwestern Association of Teachers of History, Government and Economics, will be held at Everett, Wash., December 26-28, in connection with the meeting of the Washington Educational Society.

Mr. J. R. H. Moore, of the Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, will publish shortly through the Macmillan Company, an Industrial History of the United States, intended especially for first year classes in high schools.

Professor H. Morse Stephens has resigned the directorship of University Extension at the University of California, and will hereafter devote his entire time to his duties as head of the department of history and secretary of the Academy of Pacific Coast History.

The Kansas History Teachers' Association held its second annual meeting at Topeka on November 10th at the time of the meeting of the State Teachers' Association. The program was given entirely by teachers of the state. The membership of the association has increased during the year.

The sixth annual meeting of The Ohio Valley Historical Association was held at Oxford, Ohio, November 7-9. The general topic was, "Education in the Ohio Valley Prior to 1840." Among the special papers were "Land Grants for the Aid of Education," by Professor C. T. Martzoff, of Ohio University; "Pioneer Schools and School Masters," by Mr. D. C. Schilling, of Hamilton, Ohio; "Pioneer Text-Books," by William T. H. Howe, of Cincinnati, O.; "Colonel Dick Johnson's Choctaw Academy," by Mrs. S. D. Rouse, of Covington, Ky.; "Early Academies and Grammar Schools," by Professor William W. Boyd, of Ohio State University and Professor A. B. Hulbert, of Marietta College; "The Higher Education of Women," by President Jane Scherzer, of Oxford College; "The Log Cabin as a Factor in Western Education," by Professor H. W. Elson, of Ohio University; "The Rise of the Denominational College," by R. N. Storey, of Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill.; "Early Theological Education," by Professor F. K. Farr, Lane University Seminary, Cincinnati; "The Rise of the Medical Colleges," by Doctor Otto Juettner; "Early Law Schools," by Professor C. T. Greve, of Cincinnati College.

At the business meeting, the following officers were chosen for the ensuing year: President, John E. Bradford, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio; Recording Secretary and Curator, Professor Elizabeth Crowther, Western College for Women, Oxford; Corresponding Secretary and Treasurer, D. C. Schilling, Hamilton, Ohio.

The committee appointed to investigate conditions of history teaching in Texas (questionnaire in the Magazine, October) has about completed its work, except for writing its report. The report will be presented at the annual meeting at Fort Worth on Thanksgiving Day, and will probably be printed in a bulletin of the University of Texas.

The Greek department in Smith College, Mass., is offering a new course this year, for juniors and seniors, on the history of Greek sculpture. The course is given by Mr. Sidney N. Deane, Yale 1902, and since 1906 connected with the classical department of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Mr. Deane has studied in Greece, and published several works in the field of classical scholarship.

At the next meeting of the New England Association in Boston on Saturday, December 28th, in connection with the annual meeting of the American Historical Association, the topic for discussion will be "The Equipment of the History Department in Schools and Colleges." The committee in charge of the program consists of Professor John O. Sumner, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, chairman; Philip P. Chase, Milton Academy; Mabel Hill, Lowell Normal School; Professor William MacDonald, Brown University; Lotta A. Clark, Charlestown High School; Francis A. Smith, Girls' High School, Boston; Dr. H. L. Varrell, Simmons College. Acting with this committee of the New England Association are Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia, representing the Middle States Association, and Mr. L. A. Fulwider, of Freeport, Illinois, representing the Teachers' Section of the Mississippi Valley History Association.

The committee, in addition to the presentation of its report, for which a questionnaire is being prepared, will have rooms fitted with model equipments for teaching the several fields of history. This exhibit will be at Simmons College where the great collection of historical material of the association is kept on exhibition.

The Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government met at Springfield, Mo., in connection with the State Teachers' Association, on November 14th to 16th, 1912. The general subject for discussion was "The New History and the New History Teacher; Adapting History and History Teaching to Modern Needs." Mr. C. N. Weyand, of Moberly, spoke upon "The Democratization of History Teaching." On the question, "How May the High School History Course be Made a Real Factor in Solving Modern Economic and Social Problems?" remarks were made by Mr. O. G. Sanford, of Palmyra; Miss Eugenia F. Nolan, of Webster Groves; Mr. L. A. Doran, of Springfield, and Mr. Louis Theilman, of Bonne Terre.

At the second session Mr. M. F. Vaughn, of Montgomery City, discussed the topic, "What History Should be Taught in the Rural Schools of Missouri," and Miss Anna C. Gilday, of Kansas City, spoke on "What New Order of Text Books is Needed."

The meeting of The Department of History, Civics and Social Science of the North Dakota Education Association was held on October 23, 1912, at Grand Forks, the president, Professor W. J. Trimble, of Fargo, presiding. The following papers were presented and called forth a lively discussion: "What can This Association Do to Improve the History Work in Elementary Schools?" by Professor C. M. Correll, of Mayville; "The Arousing of Positive Social Ideals through the Teaching of Civics," by Professor G. R. Davies, of University; "Means of Preparing Pupils to Approach Properly Present-day Problems," by Dr. W. N. Stearns, of Fargo. Reports were made upon "The Teaching of Sociology in Normal and High Schools," by Dr. J. M. Gillette, of University, and upon "Indian Legends as Material for School Room Plays," by Dr. O. G. Libby, of University. At the business meeting, the following officers were elected: President, Professor G. R. Davies, of University; vice-president, Professor C. M. Correll, Mayville; secretary-treasurer, Bartha R. Palmer, of Williston.

PACIFIC COAST BRANCH.

The program of the tenth annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association, held at the University of California, on Friday, November 29, and Saturday, November 30, 1912, is as follows:

Friday afternoon, 2.30 o'clock. General session.

1. Some Phases of Ptolemaic and Roman Egypt. Prof. Richard F. Scholz, University of California.

2. Notes on the Biography of Cardinal Schinner. Prof. Percy Alvin Martin, Stanford University.

3. The Organization of the Reign of Terror in France, 1793-1794. Prof. H. Morse Stephens, University of California.

Friday evening, 7.00 o'clock. The Annual Dinner. President's address, Prof. Arley Barthlow Show, Stanford University.

Saturday morning, 10.00 o'clock. General session.

1. The Background of Alaskan History. Prof. Frank Alfred Golder, State College of Washington.

2. Party Groupings in the Twenty-Second Congress. Prof. Edgar E. Robinson, Stanford University.

3. Some Effects of Inertia of Public Opinion. Prof. Murray Shipley Wildman, Stanford University.

Saturday afternoon, 2.30 o'clock. Teacher's session. The History of History Teaching. Prof. H. Morse Stephens, University of California.

Officers of the branch. President, Prof. Arley Barthlow Show, Stanford University; Vice-President, Prof. William G. Roylance, University of Utah; Secretary-Treasurer, H. W. Edwards, Oakland High School; Council, the above officers and Prof. W. E. Bliss, San Diego State Normal School; Prof. Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; Prof. L. J. Paetow, University of California; Prof. J. E. Wier, University of Nevada.

The Program Committee.—H. W. Edwards, Berkeley; H. L. Cannon, Stanford University; L. J. Paetow, Berkeley.

Committee on Arrangements.—R. F. Scholz, Berkeley; W. J. Cooper, Berkeley.

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

VINCENT, JOHN MARTIN. *Historical Research. An Outline of Theory and Practice.* New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. v, 350. \$2.00.

In his preface the author modestly announces this book as an outline rather than an encyclopedic treatment of historical investigation, designed especially for the advanced student who is about to enter the field of research. The reviewer will add that it ought to be equally valuable to teachers of history in secondary schools, for surely they have vital need of knowing the processes involved in the writing of history. The book is particularly welcome at this time, when Messrs. Holt & Co. have allowed our only other important treatise in English, the translation of Langlois and Seignobos, to go out of print.

The author cultivates, with adequate intensity for an outline, the field of historical method which Bernheim, above all others, has made so fertile. The chief topics which fall under the five great divisions of Heuristic, External Criticism, Internal Criticism, Synthesis, and Presentation, receive clear and comprehensible treatment. The sections on palaeography, diplomatics, and chronology deserve a warm welcome from the student or teacher whose language equipment or time is short. The style is vivacious and the illustrative matter is drawn quite largely from English and American history. The book is less suitable in analysis but wider in range than Langlois and Seignobos.

In the opinion of the reviewers, one of the most attractive aspects of the book—its division into twenty-six little chapters, each supplied with a pleasing title—is purchased at the expense of perfect clearness of exposition. The prime object of an outline of historical method is to make the reader fully conscious of the (theoretically) successive steps involved in writing history from the sources. To break up the five divisions of historical method into twenty-six chapters, which, with all their individual charm, blur if they do not obliterate the important lines of cleavage, is to defeat in some measure the very purpose of such a manual. External Criticism, for example, is presented in chapters III, VIII, IX, X, but only chapter III bears the title; Internal Criticism begins with chapter XI, but no chapter bears this heading. The same difficulty appears under the smaller rubrics: chapter V has the title Diplomatics, but the date of the document is reserved for discussion under Chronology. This defect would have been minimized by the insertion of clear-cut explanatory matter at the points of transition between one master topic and another, but this is almost wholly lacking.

The book is good; it is the best we have in English; but in its present form its most successful employment will be restricted to university courses.

George C. Sellery.

COMAN, KATHERINE. *Economic Beginnings of the Far West.* New York, The Macmillan Co. \$4.00.

Vol. I. Explorers and Colonizers. Pp. xix, 418.

Vol. II. American Settlers. Pp. vi, 450.

For a number of years under the patronage of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Miss Coman has been studying the vast amount of material relating to the history of the land beyond the Mississippi—explorers' reports, travellers' letters and journals, mission records, government documents, histories

of fur trading companies and other data. In the long procession of men and events, which she has conjured up from these, there march Spanish explorers searching for the sea-to-sea passage to the Orient, or following the lure of the Seven Cities of Cibola; military officials, padres and rancheros attempting colonization in the regions we now call New Mexico, Louisiana, Texas and California, all of them—soldier, missionary and adventurer—believing themselves immune from the necessity of work and justified in living off the enforced labor of the natives, "so that generations of their occupation failed to develop the southwest." Along the northwest coast Russian, Spanish, English and American explorers and fur traders, establishing claims to the fur country which then seemed to no national power worth fighting for; landmen, too, as well as mariners, for Frenchmen are coming from Montreal, Englishmen like Jonathan Carver, and Americans, such as Lewis and Clark. Men, too, of the great fur trading companies and independent hunters. Following hard after all these comes the advance guard of the land-hungry throng from the states, pushing into Louisiana, Texas and Missouri Territory which the Santa Fe traders soon connect with Mexico by ties dear to both sections; missionary and settler over the long trail to Oregon; the Mormon handcart brigade into "the great American Desert," and the gold and silver miners into the country beyond. Though the professional Indian fighter and the diplomat are relatively inconspicuous in this historic train, yet so much does the author bring into the economic phases of her story, that these volumes constitute a comprehensive history of the trans-Mississippi country. To her task she has brought both the experience and the repute gained from her *Industrial History of the United States*, and these volumes are certain to be authoritative sources of information in their fields. They abound with reference material full of interest and serviceableness for high school pupils, who will find the nearly one hundred illustrations also attractive and helpful.

Wayland J. Chase.

TILBY, A. WYATT. *The English People Overseas.* Boston, The Houghton, Mifflin Co. \$1.50 per vol.

Vol. II. British India. Pp. 286.

Vol. III. British North America, 1763-1867. Pp. 440.

Vol. IV. Britain in the Tropics, 1527-1910. Pp. 452.

It is insisted in some quarters that history should be studied, not only for its own sake but for the insight that it gives into the great contemporary problems. The historical writings of Mr. Tilby are in direct line with this view. In his four volumes on the *English People Overseas*, he has brought together a great amount of information about the British Empire, how it came to be, how it is, and what its problems are. The view-point is imperialistic, but the author is not an extremist. He has written chiefly for the general public, but his books will be of service to teachers and pupils as well. The author finds three main incentives to migration: trade, religion, and adventure. Emphasis is placed on the work of the missionary the heroic struggles of these Christian pioneers are not forgotten; but more attention is given to their great work for civilization in the darker places. The author also deals with the question of what the effects of Anglican rule in the tropical lands has been; and his conclusions appear to be thoroughly sane.

The volume on British India begins with 1498 and tells the long story of the "European invasion of Asia" and the resulting conflicts to 1828. It is too detailed for very extensive use in the class-room, but chapters and parts of chapters can be found that will prove extremely useful as supplementary reading in connection with modern and English history. It is scarcely necessary to say that in these days when Oriental questions are of such general interest, some knowledge of European interests in the East should be a part of the intellectual equipment of every high school graduate. Volume IV is closely related to the one on India; it deals with colonization in the tropics, American, African, and Asiatic. On the whole, this is perhaps the most interesting of the series. Attention is called to the closing chapter on "Victorian Britain," in which the author discusses the vast economic changes of the nineteenth century, the great social changes that resulted from this, the problems of poverty and unemployment, and the many other difficulties that followed the economic readjustment. Mr. Tilby's purpose is to show how these changes are related to colonial expansion, and how much of the distress has been relieved by the fact that the British Empire furnishes a field of opportunity for such as wish to emigrate.

Of particular interest to the teacher of American history is the author's volume on British North America, which is chiefly devoted to the settlement and development of Canada. But it also contains a somewhat extensive account of the American Revolution, written from the view-point of one who believes in the empire, but is not sure that the English statesmen handled the situation with any great wisdom. He also gives an interesting discussion of the troubles that culminated in the war of 1812. Aside from his natural bias, the author is usually fair in his treatment of facts; however, we have a right to be suspicious of a writer who can say that Henry Clay is "now better remembered for having given his name to an excellent cigar, than as a politician of some ability and inexhaustible invective." It is to be feared that Mr. Tilby's comprehension of American political history is not so great as his knowledge of British imperial growth.

Lawrence M. Larson.

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS. *The Friar of Wittenberg*. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 433. \$1.35 net.

In this new historical novel the author puts the narrative into the mouth of a young nobleman, Walter von Lichenstein zum Regenstein, who tells the story of his life. The young man is the son of a German free knight and a noble Italian lady, and has inherited a great fortune and an Italian title from his mother. He stands high at the court of Pope Leo X, loves and is loved by the daughter of a great Cardinal of the Church, but returns to his ancestral home in the Harz Mountains. There he falls in love with the daughter of a nearby nobleman, Ilsa von Blankenburg. The story of these two love affairs runs through the book. The struggle is concluded by the failure of an attempt by the Cardinal and his daughter to kidnap the hero who has turned Lutheran, and a battle between the two ladies which results in the Italian being stabbed to death with her own dagger. Of course, Walter at last marries Ilsa, who has escaped from the nunnery where she had taken the vows.

The scenes are laid at Rome and in the Papal States, and in Wittenberg, the Harz Region, and several other places in Germany. Martin Luther, "The Friar of Wittenberg," is a very prominent figure in the book, and the story of his life from about 1516 to 1521 is well told by Walter, who is made to participate in most of the great events. Luther's simple teaching of the fundamentals of the reformed faith is well emphasized. Throughout the novel are good pictures of Italian and German life of the times. The historical setting is accurate, though some of the incidents are not authentic.

The story is readable and even exciting at times, but one could wish its title were a little better justified by a more extended treatment of Luther's own life. A simple and authoritative biography, written with the same story-telling ability as the author shows, might well be deemed sufficiently dramatic. But this novel will doubtless win many readers who would not start a real biography of the great friar. The book will be very interesting to high school pupils, and may well stimulate interest in Luther and lead to further reading about him.

Clarence Perkins.

LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

(Continued from page 233.)

- Ward, Bernard. *The eve of Catholic Emancipation*, vol. 3, 1820-1829. New York: Longmans. 390 pp. \$3.75 net.
Worsfold, W. B. *Union of South Africa*. Boston: Little, Brown. 529 pp. \$3.00 net.

European History.

- d'Ambas, Baron. *Intimate memoirs of Napoleon III*. In 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown. 809 pp. \$6.00 net.
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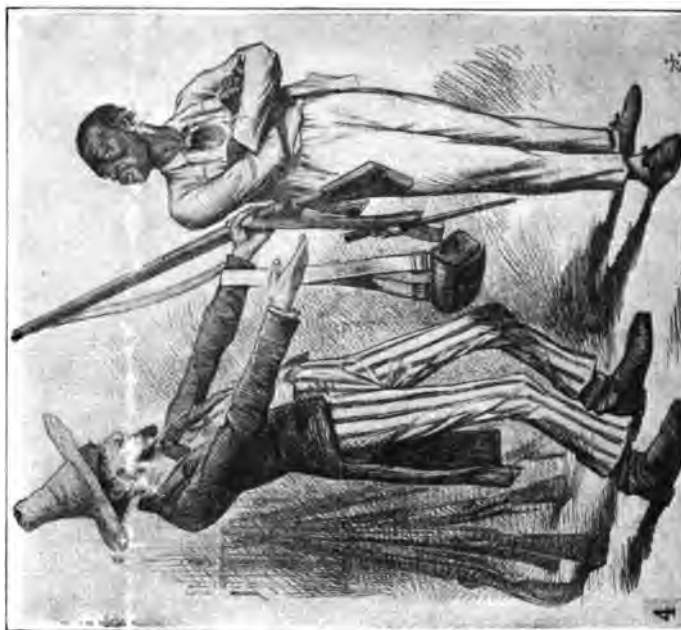
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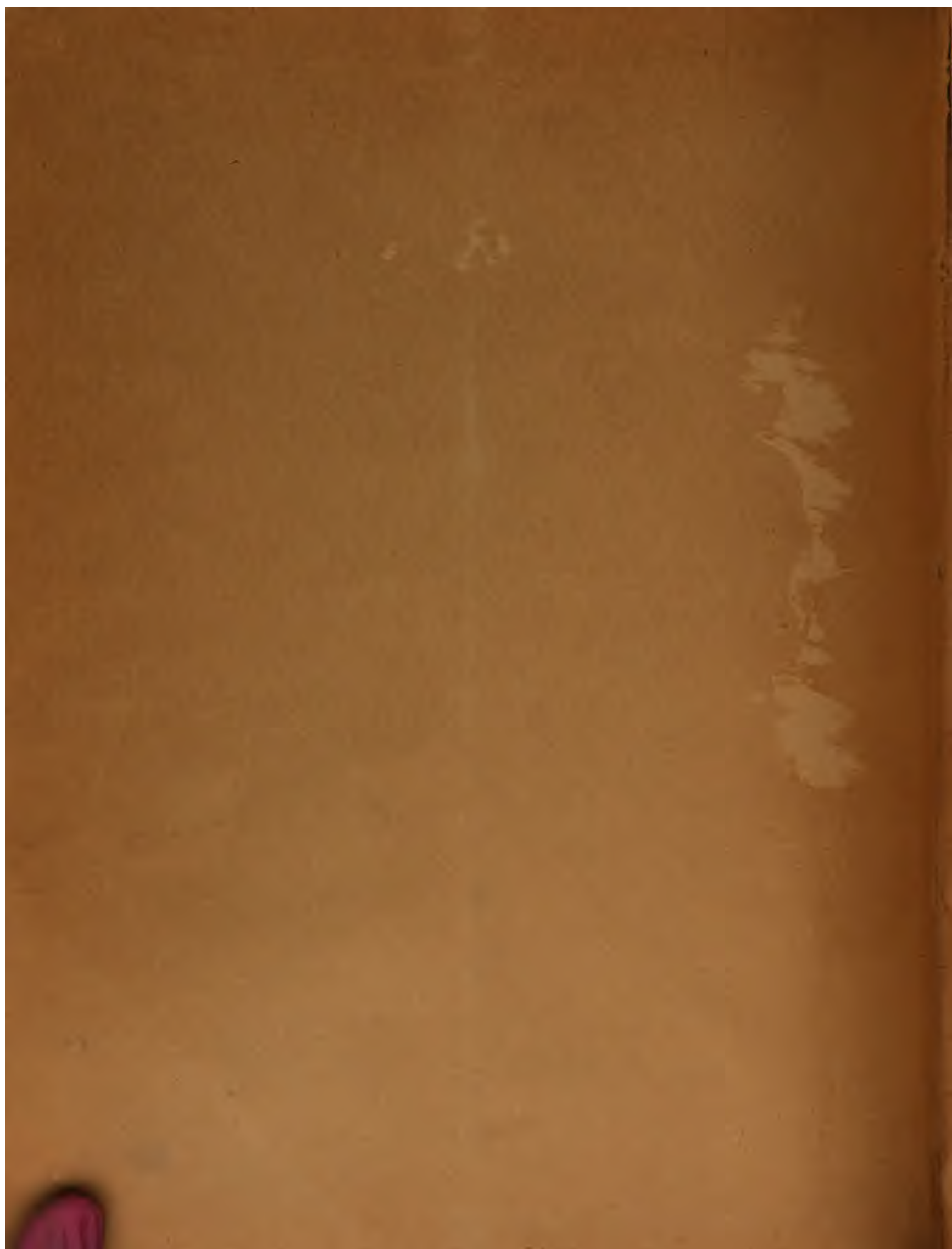
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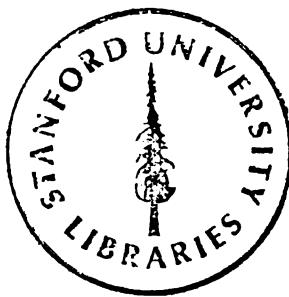
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